

Evelyn Stewart Murray
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A GRAMMAR
OF THE
IRISH LANGUAGE

BY

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DUBLIN
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From the Re-typesetter.

Every effort has been made to reproduce this document as a faithful copy of the original.

Fonts have been chosen with care. Georgia for English text, and **᚛ᐱᑦᐱᑦ ᐅᐱ ᐱᐱᐱᐱᐱᐱᐱᐱ** for Irish text. For increased clarity, the Irish text is magnified by three points, so that the lower case 'n' heights match better.

The original Irish font was difficult to read, and had the old long 'r' and 's'. This new font uses the short characters which are much easier on the eye.

Many of Joyce's quoted examples are from early texts, and he freely uses the various spellings found in the originals. I have not made any effort to change these. However, there are cases of ᚛ᐱᑦᐱᑦ with, and without ᚛ᐱᐱᐱᐱ in the original, often in the same paragraph, or even line. this I have corrected, assuming it a printer's error, though I acknowledge that there was in the recent past, a belief that the vowel in a monosyllable ending in a vowel was by default, long. Likewise some séim᚛ᐱᑦ dots are missing in the original. Here I have corrected the assumed printing error without qualm.

Though I have exercised great care in this work, it is inevitable that some errors of mine have crept in. Therefore, please compare this with the original, which you can find, either on Archive.org:

<http://www.archive.org/details/grammarofirishlao1joyc>

Or from my copy on Box.Net:

<http://www.box.net/shared/9cizoksvzirf4kvj4dpo>

Please notify me of any errors found, at

<daveat168@btinternet.com>

Is mise, le meᐱᑦᐱᑦ,
ᐅᑦᑦᑦᐱᑦ.

PREFACE.



Though this text-book is small, it comprises, I believe, everything necessary—so far as grammar is concerned—for a student of modern Irish. I have not treated at all of the ancient forms of the language; and I have excluded everything in the shape of dissertation: the grammar of the modern Irish language, and no more, is here set forth in words as few and simple as possible.

I have not suggested any changes either in spelling or in grammatical forms, or attempted innovation of any kind: this is a grammar of the language as it actually exists in the works of our best writers.

All the illustrative examples are quotations from standard Irish writings; but though I retain the references, I have not given them in the grammar, as they would encumber the book, and impede, rather than facilitate the learner. I may mention here, however, that the works from which the examples are chiefly taken, are, those of Keating, the publications of the Ossianic Society, “The Three Sorrowful Stories of Erin” (viz., “The Fate of the Children of Usna,” “The Fate of the Children of Lir,” and “The Fate of the Children of Turenn”), and occasionally the “Annals of the Four Masters.” The language of the various works published by the Archaeological and Celtic Societies is generally too antiquated to be quoted in a grammar of modern Irish.

I have all through given word-for-word translations of the examples; free translations would have been more pleasant to read, but would have added considerably to the learner’s difficulty.

In the last Part—“Idioms”—I have given a popular rather than a scientific explanation of the principal idioms of the language. Nothing like this is to be found in any other Irish Grammar; and I believe that the learner who masters it will be saved much labour and perplexity.

There are several other Irish Grammars, but none low enough in price to be within reach of the many. Whoever wishes to study the Irish language in its ancient as well as in its modern forms, must procure O'Donovan's Grammar; without this great work no one can attain a thorough knowledge of the language. I may also mention "The College Irish Grammar," by the Rev. Ulick J. Canon Bourke, in which there is a great amount of miscellaneous information on the language, proverbs, and popular literature of Ireland.

The labours of the Society for the Preservation of the Irish Language have lately given a great impetus to Celtic studies. The Society has produced two admirable little elementary books (the First and Second Irish Books) and are about to bring out a third all drawn up by the members themselves on the plan of the elementary works of Smith, Arnold, Ahn, &c. But the want of a very cheap and simple text-book on Irish Grammar has been much felt; and this Grammar has been written to supply the want. I have written it with the cognisance of the Council of the Society, of which I am myself a member. It was at first intended that the name of the Society should appear on the title-page along with my own name, and a resolution to that effect was passed by the Council. But I found some difficulty as to the exact words, and I have accordingly contented myself with mentioning the matter here.

I acknowledge with thanks that I have received valuable assistance from several gentlemen of the Society, who read every word of my proofs, suggesting various corrections, alterations, and improvements. One member in particular, Mr. John Fleming of Rathgormuck, in the county Waterford, read all my manuscript in the first instance, and all the proof-sheets afterwards. Mr. Fleming's assistance was invaluable to me, for he possesses an intimate knowledge of modern Irish Grammar, language, and literature, and what is still better, much sound sense and clear critical judgment.

Dublin, November, 1878.

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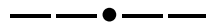
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SCHOOL IRISH GRAMMAR.



PART I. ORTHOGRAPHY.



CHAPTER I.

SOUNDS.

I. LETTERS.

1. The Irish alphabet consists of eighteen letters, of which thirteen are consonants and five are vowels.

2. The five vowels are **Δ**, **e**, **ι**, **ο**, **υ**; of which **Δ**, **ο**, **υ** are broad, and **e**, **ι** are slender.

3. Each consonant (with the exceptions mentioned below) has a broad and a slender sound. When a consonant comes immediately after or before a broad vowel, it has its broad sound: when it comes after or before a slender vowel, it has its slender sound. But this does not apply to **b**, **f**, **h**, **m**, **p**, each of which has one sound only, whether joined with a broad vowel or a slender vowel.

4. Vowels are either long or short. A long vowel is usually marked by an accent; as **bán**, white: a short vowel has no mark; as **mΔc**, a son.

5. The Irish vowels, like the English, have an obscure sound in unaccented syllables, of which it is not necessary to take further notice here.

6. The following are the usual sounds of the Irish letters, so far as they can be represented by English letters.

7. Those marked with asterisks are only imperfectly represented in sound by the corresponding English letters: those not so marked are represented perfectly or very nearly so.

8. The sounds of the marked letters must be learned by ear: it is hardly possible to give in writing such a description of them as would enable a learner to utter them.

9. *C* is equal to *k*, yet when it comes before the diphthong *ao* or the triphthong *aoi*, beginners find it very hard to sound it: *cao* (narrow) is neither *kail* or *quail*, but something between: *caom* (gentle) is neither *keen* or *queen*, but something between.

10. So also with *g*, which (broad and slender) is equal to *g* in *got* and *get*: yet *gaol* is hard for a beginner to utter, being neither *gail* nor *gwait*, but something between.

11. The Irish broad *d* and *t* bear the same relation to each other as the English *d* and *t*; that is, the first in each case is flat or soft, and the second sharp or hard. English *d* and *t* are sounded by placing the tip of the tongue against the roof of the mouth: Irish *d* and *t* by placing the top of the tongue against the upper front teeth. Irish *d* and *t* may be described in another way: the two sounds of *th* in *those* and *thumb* are both continuous, the first flat, the second sharp. Now the two *explosive* sounds corresponding to these two continuous sounds (i.e., with the tongue in the same position), are exactly the Irish *d* and *t*.

12. Broad *l* and *n* are sounded by placing the top of the tongue (not against the roof of the mouth as in case of English *l* and *n* but) against the upper front teeth. Irish *d* and *t* are to English *d* and *t* as Irish *l* or *n* to English *l* or *n*.

13. Slender *r* is the most difficult of all the Irish consonantal sounds: and learners, unless they have acquired it in youth, often fail to articulate it correctly, though the teacher may sound it over and over again for their imitation.

14. As *h* represents a mere breathing or aspiration and not an articulate sound, and as it never begins a word, some writers exclude it from the letters, thus making seventeen instead of eighteen, as given here.

TABLE OF SOUNDS

	Letters.		Vowel long or short.	Consonant broad or slender.	Irish sounds.	Corresponding English sounds.
	Irish.	Eng.				
	À à	a	long	...	lán	lawn, ball
	” ”		short	...	mac	bat or what
	b b	b	ball	ban
	C c	c	...	broad	cab	cob
	” ”		...	slender	cinn	king
	ḃ ḃ	d	...	broad	ḃall	those
	” ”		...	slender	ḃian	cordial
	e e	e	long	...	mé	date
	” ”		short	...		met
	f f	f	finn	fin
	ḡ ḡ	g	...	broad	ḡort	got
	” ”		...	slender	ḡeis	get, gimlet
	h h	h	Δ h-Δnam	hammer
	i i	i	long	...	mín	seen
	” ”		short	...	min	pill
*	l l	l	...	broad	lón	lone
	” ”		...	slender	file	vermillion
	m m	m	mil	mill
*	n n	n	...	broad	nór	none
	” ”		...	slender	neΔḃ	new
	O o	o	long	...	mór	more
	” ”		short	...	ḃos	love, run
	p p	p	poc	pore
	R r	r	...	broad	róḃ	road
*	” ”		...	slender	cuir	clarion
	s s	s	...	broad	sonΔ	son
	” ”		...	slender	sín	sheen
*	ṫ ṫ	t	...	broad	com	thumb
*	” ”		...	slender	teine	courteous
	U u	u	long	...	múr	moor, rude
	” ”		short	...	muc	put, bull

15. The following are the native names of the Irish letters, but they need not be used by the learner. All or most of them are the names of trees. *Áilm*, *a*; *berc*, *b*; *coll*, *c*; *ḃair*, *d*; *eaḃa*, *e*; *fearn*, *f*; *ḡort*, *g*; *uač*, *h*; *ioḡa*, *i*; *luis*, *l*; *muint*, *m*; *nuin*, *n*; *oir* or *onn*, *o*; *perc-boḡ*, *p*; *ruis*, *r*; *suil*, *s*; *teine*, *t*; *úr*, *u*.

II. DIPHTHONGS.

1. There are thirteen diphthongs in the Irish language—viz., Δe , Δo , eu , $\iota \Delta$, $u \Delta$, Δi , $e \Delta$, $e i$, $e o$, ιo , ιu , $o i$, $u i$; of which the first five are always long, and the remaining eight are sometimes long and sometimes short.

2. The following are the sounds of the five long diphthongs :—

3. Δe sounds like *ay* in *slay*; as $\mathfrak{R} \Delta e$, the moon, pronounced *ray*.

4. Δo , in the southern half of Ireland, sounds nearly like *way*, and in the west and north-west somewhat like *we*. Thus $\mathfrak{m} \Delta o \mathfrak{R}$, a steward, is pronounced like *mwair* in the south, and like *mweer* in the west and north-west.

5. eu like *ai* in *lair*; as in $\mathfrak{f} e u \mathfrak{R}$, grass, pronounced *fair*.

6. $\iota \Delta$ like *ee* in *beer*; as in $\mathfrak{c} \iota \Delta \mathfrak{R}$, dark-coloured, pronounced *keer*.

7. $u \Delta$ nearly like *oe* in *doer*; as in $\mathfrak{l} u \Delta \mathfrak{n}$, Monday, pronounced *loo-an*.

8. The following are the sounds of the eight diphthongs that are sometimes long and sometimes short. When these diphthongs are long there is an accent over one of the vowels: when short there is no accent.

9. $\acute{\Delta} i$ long has an accent over the Δ , and sounds something like the *awi* in *drawing*; as in $\mathfrak{c} \acute{\Delta} i \mathfrak{n}$, tribute, pronounced *caw-in*.

Δi short is sounded something like the *a* in *valiant* or the *o* in *collier*; as in $\mathfrak{m} \Delta i \mathfrak{t}$, good, whose sound is very nearly represented by *moh*.

In Ulster, Δi short is pronounced like short *e* in *bell*; as in $\Delta i \mathfrak{s} \iota o \mathfrak{c}$, restitution, which is pronounced *eshoc* in the north, and *ashoc* in the south and west.

10. $\acute{e} \Delta$ long has an accent over the e , and sounds

like *ea* in *bear*; thus *méar*, a finger, is pronounced *mare*.

e short sounds like *ea* in *heart* (but shorter); as in *ḟeas*, knowledge, pronounced *fass*.

11. *éi* long has an accent over the *e*, and sounds like *ei* in *rein*; as *ṛém*, a course, pronounced *raim*. *e* short, like *e* in *sell*; as in *ceis*, a basket, sounded like *kesh*.

12. *eó* long has an accent over the *o*, and is sounded nearly like long English *o* with a slight sound of *y* before it; as in *ceól*, music, which will be correctly pronounced if a *k* sound is put before the word *yole*.

eo short, nearly like *u* in *shut*, with *y* before it; as in *ḁeoč*, drink.

Note.—This diphthong is short in only a very few words.

13. *ío* long has an accent over the *i*, and sounds very like *ea* in *hear*; as in *ḟíon*, wine, pronounced *feen* or *fee-on*.

io short, nearly like short *i*; as in *miorr*, myrrh, which has nearly the same sound as the first syllable of *mirror*.

14. *ú* long has an accent over the *u*, and has the same sound as the diphthongal English *u* in *tune*; as in *ḟiú*, worthy, which is sounded exactly like *few*.

u short is sounded like the *u* in *put*, with a *y* before it; as in *ḟluč*, wet.

15. *ói* long has an accent over the *o*, and is sounded like the *owi* in *owing*; as in *ḟóil*, a while, pronounced *fō-il*.

oi short like the *o* in *love*, with a very short *i* at the end; as in *ṭoil*, the will.

16. *úi* long, with an accent over the *u*, is sounded like *ooi* in *cooing*; as *súi*, the eye, pronounce *soo-il*.

uí long, with an accent over the *í*, has nearly the same sound as *we*; as in *buíðe*, yellow, which is pronounced *bwee*.

ui short is like the *ui* in *quill*; as in *fuiseóð*, a lark, pronounced *fwishoge*

III. TRIPHTHONGS.

1. There are commonly reckoned five triphthongs, which are always long:—*aoi*, *eoí*, *iai*, *iuí*, *uai*.

2. *aoi* is sounded very like *we*, as in *maoin*, wealth, pronounced *mween*.

3. *eoí* is sounded like the *yoi* in the combination *yo-ing*; as in *feoil*, flesh, which will be correctly pronounced if the sound of *f* is put before the combination *yō-il*.

4. *iai* is sounded like *eei* in *seeing*; as *liaið*, a physician.

5. *iuí* like the *ewi* in *mewing*; as *ciuin*, gentle.

6. *uai* like *ooi* in *cooing*; as *buail*, strike, which is sounded *boo-il*.

7. The preceding attempts to represent the sounds of the diphthongs and triphthongs are in many cases mere approximations. The student must hear them pronounced, and in no other way is it possible to learn to sound them correctly.

IV. VARIOUS SOUNDS.

1. *Δ* and *o* before *m*, *nn*, *ll*, or *ng*, in monosyllables, and often before *nc* and *nc*, are sounded in Munster like the *ou* in *foul*; as *cΔm*, crooked, and *coll*, hazel, pronounced *cowm* and *cowl*; and *gleΔnnτán*, a small glen, pronounced *glounthaun*: and *o* before *ð* and *ð* has often the same sound; as *foðlΔim*, learning, pronounced *fowlim*.

2. *Δð* and *Δð* are often sounded like long English *i* in *fine*; as *raðΔrc*, sight, pronounced

ry-ark; $\text{ɫ} \Delta \text{ʊ} \Delta \text{ɾ}$, a fork, pronounced *lyre*; $\text{m} \Delta \text{ʊ} \text{m}$, a breach, pronounced *mime*.

3. The termination $\Delta \text{ʊ}$ is pronounced in Connaught nearly the same as *oo*: thus $\text{b} \text{u} \Delta \text{ɫ} \Delta \text{ʊ}$, striking, is pronounced *booloo* in Connaught, but *boola* in Munster.

4. In the combination $\text{ʊ} \text{ɫ}$, the ʊ is silent, and the whole is sounded like ɫ or ɫɫ ; as $\text{c} \text{o} \text{ʊ} \text{ɫ} \Delta \text{ʊ}$, sleep, pronounced *culla*.

5. In the combination $\text{ɫ} \text{n}$, the n is silent, and the whole is sounded like ɫ or ɫɫ ; as $\text{c} \text{o} \text{ɫ} \text{n} \Delta$, of a body, pronounced *culla*.

6. In the combination $\text{ʊ} \text{n}$, the ʊ is silent, and the whole is sounded the same as n or nn ; as $\text{c} \acute{\text{e}} \Delta \text{ʊ} \text{n} \Delta$, the same, pronounced *kaina*.

7. Final *e* is never entirely silent in Irish as it is in English; thus $\text{m} \acute{\text{i}} \text{n} \text{e}$, smoothness, is pronounced *meena*. In some situations it is very nearly silent in the modern language; as in $\text{c} \text{r} \text{o} \text{i} \text{ʊ} \text{e}$, a heart, pronounced *cree*.

8. There are some Irish consonants which, when they come together in a word, do not coalesce in sound, so that when they are uttered, a *very* short obscure vowel sound is heard between them.

This generally occurs in the case of two liquids, or a liquid and a mute. Thus $\text{ɫ} \text{o} \text{ɾ} \text{ɟ}$, a track, is pronounced so as to seem, to an ear accustomed to English, a word of two syllables; not *lurg* but *lurrug*. $\text{ʊ} \text{e} \Delta \text{ɫ} \text{ʊ}$, a shape, is sounded, not *dalv*, but *dallav*; $\text{s} \text{e} \Delta \text{ɾ} \text{ʊ}$, bitter, is sounded *sharrav*; $\text{b} \text{o} \text{ɾ} \text{ʊ}$, proud, is pronounced *burrub*; $\text{c} \text{o} \text{ɫ} \text{ɟ}$, a sword, *cullug*, and so on. In Irish prosody, however, such words as these count as only one syllable.

In the English language no such difficulty exists in regard to most of these letters; they coalesce perfectly in sound, so that each of the above words would be a pure monosyllable.

CHAPTER II.

LETTER CHANGES.

I. ASPIRATION.

1. The term “aspiration” is used to express a certain change of sound suffered by some of the Irish consonants under certain grammatical conditions.

2. It is impossible to give a definition of aspiration that will correctly describe all the cases, inasmuch as the changes of sound vary in kind with the several consonants. In most cases the change caused by aspiration is one from an *explosive* to a *continuous* sound.

3. There are nine consonants which can be aspirated, namely, *b*, *c*, *ḃ*, *f*, *ḡ*, *m*, *p*, *s*, *ṣ*; these are called mutable or aspirable consonants; the others are called immutable. The aspiration is denoted either by placing a point over the consonant, as *ċ*; or by placing *h* after it, as *ṣh*.

4. The following are the sounds of the aspirated consonants so far as they can be represented by English letters.

5. *bh* or *ḃ* is sounded sometimes like *v* and sometimes like *w*, and it often has a sound something between both; as a *ḃean*, his wife, pronounced *a van*; *ḡadal*, a fork, pronounced *gowal*.

6. *Ch* broad has a guttural sound which is not represented in English; but it is heard in the pronunciation of the word *lough*, Irish *lóc*, a lake.

Ch slender (i.e. joined with a slender vowel) has a less guttural sound than *ċ* broad; as *míċiall*, folly, in which the *ċ* sound is only a little more guttural than *h* in *mee-heel*.

7. *ḃh* and *ḡ* have the same sound. When slender, they are sounded like initial *y* in English; as *ḡean*, his love, pronounced *a yan*. *ḃh* and *ḡ*

broad have a guttural sound which cannot be represented by English letters, though it is something like initial *y* or initial *w*; it stands to the guttural sound of broad *ċ* in the relation of flat to hard. Both these aspirated letters are silent at the end of a word; as *ḟiað*, a deer, pronounced *fee-a*.

But in south Munster the final *ġ* is fully sounded, like *g* in *fig*: as *Corcaġ* (dative of *Corcaċ*, Cork), pronounced *curkig* in Munster, but *curkee* elsewhere.

8. *ḟh* is always silent; thus *Δ ḟios*, his knowledge, is pronounced *a iss*; *Δn ḟeaðóʒ*, the plover, pronounced *an addoge*.

9. *m̃h* is very nearly the same as *ð*, viz., like *v* or *w*; as *Δ m̃ias*, his dish, pronounced *a vee-as*.

10. *ḟh* has the sound of *f*, as *Δ ḟian*, his pain, pronounced *a fee-an*.

11. *Sh* and *ċ* are the same as *h*; as *Δ śál*, his heel, pronounced *a haul*; *Δ ċobΔR*, his well, pronounced *a hubber*.

II. RULES FOR ASPIRATION.*

1. The possessive pronouns *m̃o*, my; *ðo*, thy; and *Δ*, his, aspirate the first consonant of the next word: as *m̃o ðó*, my cow; *ðo ċeΔnn*, thy head; *Δ ġoRτ*, his garden.

2. The article aspirates in the singular feminine nominative and accusative;† as *Δn ðeΔn*, the woman. (See also p. 18, Par. 6, and p 31.)

3. The article aspirates in the genitive singular masculine; as *Δn ġuīRτ*, of the garden.

* These rules cannot be fully understood without a knowledge of Etymology. It must be borne in mind that they apply only to the aspirable or mutable consonants.

† Irish nouns have no inflection for the accusative (or objective) case ; but it is often convenient to speak of nouns in the accusative, by which is meant the case where the noun is the object of a transitive verb, or sometimes of a preposition.

Note.—This rule and the preceding do not apply to the letter *s*. (See also p. 18, Par. 6, and p. 31.)

4. In compound words, the initial consonant of the second word of the compound is aspirated (with a few exceptions): thus from *ceann*, a head, and *bhrat*, a garment, is formed *ceannbhrat*, head-garment or canopy. (See also p. 34, Par. 2.)

5. The interjections *Δ* and *Ο*, as signs of the vocative case, aspirate ; as *Δ fíR*, *Ο man*.

6. An adjective agreeing with a noun has its initial consonant aspirated when the noun is nominative singular feminine, or genitive singular masculine, or vocative singular of both genders and, according to O'Donovan, in the nominative plural masculine, when the noun ends in a consonant; as *bó báin*, a white cow; *cait báin*, of a white cat; *Δ fíR móir*, *Ο great man*; *Δ bean seim*, *Ο mild woman*; *capall bána*, white horses. (*o* and *τ* are sometimes excepted: see p. 34.)

7. The initial consonant of a verb is aspirated (1) in the infinitive mood by the particles *do* and *Δ*; as *do déanao* or *Δ déanao*, to do: (2), in the simple past tense, active voice; as *do seas sé*, he stood: (3) by the particles *ní*, not, and *má*, if: as *ní beir sí*, she will not be; *má seasann sé*, if he stands; (4), by the relative *Δ*, who, (expressed or understood); as *an té Δ buairear* the person who strikes. (See also pp. 58 and 60.)

8. The simple prepositions, with some exceptions, aspirate the initial consonants of nouns: as *air bárr*, on top; *do mullac*, to a summit; *faoi ghéan*, under affection.

III. ECLIPSIS.

1. A consonant is said to be eclipsed, or to suffer eclipse, when its sound is suppressed, and the sound of another consonant which is prefixed to it, substituted: thus in *n-báin*, *o* is eclipsed by *n*

and the whole word is pronounced *nawn*, whereas *ᵹán* is pronounced *dawn*. It is only at the beginning of words that consonants are eclipsed.

2. The following eight consonants can be eclipsed:—*b*, *c*, *ᵹ*, *f*, *ḡ*, *p*, *s*, *τ*; the others cannot. Between the eclipsing and the eclipsed letter there is usually placed a hyphen, as *m-bárᵹ*; but often they are put together without any separating mark, as *bporτ*. Sometimes eclipsis is denoted by the doubling of the eclipsed letter; thus a *ττΔṛᵹ* is the same as a *ᵹ-τΔṛᵹ*, their bull.

3. Each consonant has an eclipsing letter of its own.

4. *b* is eclipsed by *m*: as *Δ m-bárᵹ*, their bard, pronounced *a mawrd*.

5. *c* is eclipsed by *ḡ*: as a *ḡ-colᵛ*, their hazel, pronounced *a gowl* or *a gull*.

6. *ᵹ* by *n*; as a *n-ᵹos*, their bush, pronounced *a nuss*.

7. *f* by *ᵹ* (which itself sounds like *v* or *w*); as *Δ ᵹ-feΔṛΔnn*, their land, pronounced *a varran*.

8. *ḡ* is eclipsed by *n*. But this is not a true eclipsis, for the resulting sound is not that of *n*, but the sound of English *ng*; thus *Δ nḡioᵛᵛΔ*, their servant, is pronounced *ang-illa*.

9. *p* is eclipsed by *b*; as *Δ b-piΔn*, their pain, pronounced *a bee-an*.

10. *s* is eclipsed by *τ*, as in *Δn τ-súᵛ*, the eye, pronounced *an too-il*.

11. *τ* is eclipsed by *ᵹ*; as *Δ ᵹ-τál*, their adze, pronounced *a dawl*.

IV. RULES FOR ECLIPSIS.*

1. The possessive pronouns plural—*ár*, our;

* These rules apply of course only to those consonants that can be eclipsed. The rules for eclipsis, like those for aspiration, suppose a knowledge of Etymology.

ḃUR, your; Δ, their; eclipse the initial consonant of the next word; as ÁR ḃ-ṽiḡeΔRnΔ, our Lord; ḃUR ḡ-CRAnn, your tree; Δ ḃ-pÁIRC, their field.*

2. The article eclipses the initial consonant of nouns in the genitive plural; as τεΔċ nΔ m-bÁRḃ, the house of the bards; ḡORT nΔ ḡ-CAPAll, the field of the horses.

3. When a simple preposition is followed by the article and a noun in the singular number, the initial consonant of the noun is generally eclipsed as ΔIR Δn m-bÓRḃ, on the table; Ó'n ḃ-ḡAIRḡe, from the sea. (See p. 31; see also Syntax.)

4. The initial consonant of a verb is eclipsed after the interrogative particles Δ, Δn, cÁ, nΔċ; also after ḡo, that; munaΔ, unless; iΔR, after; ḃÁ, if; and after the relative Δ preceded by a preposition; as Δ m-beiReΔnn se? Does he bear? Δn m-buΔil-eΔnn tú? Dost thou strike? cÁ ḃ-ḡuil sí? Where is she? nΔċ ḃ-ṽuḡeΔnn tu? Dost thou not understand? ḡo m-beΔnnΔiḡe ḃiΔ ḃuit, may God bless thee; munaΔ ḃ-ṽuitḡIR, unless thou shalt fall; ḃÁ n-ḃeΔRḡΔinn, if I would say; Δn ṽIR Δnn Δ ḃ-ṽΔinic siΔḃ, the country into which they came.

5. When a noun beginning with s is preceded by the article, the s is eclipsed when the noun is nominative feminine, or genitive masculine, and generally in the dative of both genders, as Δn ṽ-sΔoirse (fem.), the freedom; ḡORT Δn ṽ-sΔḡAIRṽ, the field of the priest; ΔIR Δn ṽ-sΔoḡΔl, or ΔR Δn sΔoḡΔl, in the world. But if the s is followed by b, c, ḃ, ḡ, m, p, or ṽ, it is not eclipsed; as ḡleΔnn Δn smóil, the valley of the thrush; loċ Δn scÁil, the lake of the champion. (See pp. 30 and 31.)

* Rules 1, 2, 3, 4, do not apply to p. See for this letter Rule 5.

6. The following rule is usually given with the rules for eclipsis :—

When a word begins with a vowel, the letter **n** is generally prefixed in all cases where an initial consonant (except **s**) would be eclipsed; as **Δ n-ΔRÁn**, their bread; **loč nΔ n-ÉΔn**, the lake of the birds.*

V. CAOL le CAOL ΔGUS leΔČAN le leΔČAN, OR SLENDER WITH SLENDER AND BROAD WITH BROAD.†

1. If a consonant or any combination of consonants comes between two vowels, they must be either both slender or both broad; thus in **solΔs**, light, the **o** and the **Δ** are both broad vowels; and in **činneΔs**, sickness, the **ı** and the **e** are both slender vowels. But such combinations as **solıs** and **činnΔs** are not allowable, because the **o** and the **ı** in the first case, and the **ı** and the **Δ** in the second case, are one of them broad and the other slender.

2. In compliance with this rule, when two words, or a word and a syllable, are joined together, so that in the resulting word a consonant or consonantal combination would fall between two vowels, one of them broad and the other slender, then either the broad vowel must be made slender or the slender one broad, to bring them to an agreement.

3. Sometimes the broad vowel is changed to make it agree with the slender vowel; sometimes the slender vowel is made broad to agree with the broad vowel; sometimes it is the vowel before the consonant that is changed; sometimes the change is made in the vowel after the consonant. A prefix is generally changed to suit the word it is joined to, not the reverse; thus when **cóm** is prefixed to **seΔsΔm**, standing, the word is **cóimseΔsΔm**, competition, not **cómsΔsΔm**.

* For a very detailed and clear statement of the laws of aspiration and eclipsis, see the Second Irish Book by the Society for the preservation of the Irish Language.

† This rule is very generally, but not universally, followed in the Irish language.

4. Changing a broad vowel to a slender is called in Irish *caoluḡaḁ* (i.e., making slender, from *caol*, slender), and in English attenuation; changing from slender to broad is called in Irish *leatnuḡaḁ* (i.e., making broad, from *leatnu*, broad).

5. Attenuation takes place chiefly in two ways :—first by putting a slender vowel between the broad vowel and the consonant, as when *bail*, a spot, is changed to *bail*, spots; or when *ḡa* is postfixed to *buail*, and the resulting word is *buailḡa*, not *buailḡa*: secondly, by removing the broad vowel which precedes or follows the consonant, and putting a slender vowel in its place; as when *ceann*, a head, is changed to *cinn*, of a head.

6. In like manner “making broad” takes place chiefly in two ways, which are the reverse of the two preceding.

7. The following examples will illustrate the preceding rules and remarks :—

8. When the future termination *ḡa* is added to *buail*, the resulting word is not *buailḡa*, but *buailḡa*, I shall strike.

9. When the infinitive termination *aḁ* is added to *buail*, the resulting word is not *buailaḁ* but *buaiaḁ*.

10. When *mór*, great, is prefixed to *cion*, love, the compound is not *mórcion* but *móircion*, great love.

11. When *ceann*, head, is prefixed to *litr*, a letter, the compound is not *ceannlitr* but *cinnlitr*, a head-letter or capital letter. (This is a case of irregular attenuation.)

12. When the diminutive termination *ós* is added to *cuil*, the resulting word is not *cuilós* but *culeós*, a fly.

13. When *e* is added to *oró*, a thumb, to inflect it for the genitive, the word is not *oróge* but *oróige*, of a thumb.

14. When the diminutive termination *ín* is added to *capall*, a horse, the whole word is not *capallín* but *capallín*.

VI. SYNCOPÉ.

1. Syncope, or the omission of one or more letters from the body of a word, is very common in Irish.

2. When a short vowel occurs between a liquid (*l*, *n*, *r*, or *s*) and a mute, or between two liquids, the word is often syncopated when it is lengthened either by grammatical inflection or otherwise.

3. The syncope generally consists in the omission of the short vowel; but this change often involves others in accordance with the rule *caol le caol* &c.; and is often also accompanied by some slight consonantal changes.

4. The following examples exhibit the chief types of syncope.

5. *lánam*, a married couple; plural *lánamna*, contracted from *lánamana*.

6. *lasair*, a flame; plural *lasraça*, contracted from *lasaraça*.

7. *focal*, a word; *foclóir*, a dictionary, contracted from *focalóir*.

8. *saiðir*, rich; comparative *saiðre*, contracted from *saiðire*.

9. *cačair*, a city; genitive *cačrač*, contracted from *cačarač*.

10. *flaičeamail*, princely; comparative *flaičeamla*, contracted from *flaičeamala*.

11. *colann*, the body, genitive *colna*, (sometimes *colla*), contracted from *colanna*.

12. *cara*, genitive *carað*: the plural is formed by adding *e* to this, which syncopates the second *a*: this would make *carðe*, which again, in accordance with the rule *caol le caol* &c, is made *cairðe*.

13. *uasal*, noble, becomes *uaise* in the comparative, by a process exactly similar to the last.

14. *folus*, evident, becomes *foillse* in the comparative in a similar way.

15. *abann*, a river: the plural is formed by adding *e*; this causes syncope of the second *a* and the omission of one *n*, which would make the plural *abne*; and this again becomes *aiðne*, by the rule *caol le caol* &c.

16. *labair*, speak (imperative mood); *labraim*, I speak, contracted from *labaraim*,

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

1. There are nine parts of speech in Irish, which are the same as those in English.

CHAPTER I.

THE ARTICLE.

I. CHANGE OF FORM IN THE ARTICLE.

1. The Irish language has one article, an, which has the same meaning as the English definite article *the*.

2. The article changes its form according to number, gender, and case.

3. In the singular number the article has the form **an** in all the cases except the genitive feminine, in which it becomes **na**; as **caisleán na ciorce**, the castle of the hen.

In the plural number the article is always **na**.

4. In the spoken language the **n** of **an** is often omitted before a consonant; as **ceann a tairb**, the head of the bull. And this is sometimes found in books also, both printed and MS., but it is not to be recommended.

5. When **an** follows a preposition ending in a vowel, the **a** is often omitted in writing, but the omission is usually marked by an apostrophe; thus, **ó an tír**, from the land, is written **ó'n tír**; and **fá an ngréin**, under the sun, is written **fá'n ngréin**.

Very often in MSS., and sometimes in printed books, the apostrophe in such cases is omitted, and the *n* of the article joined with the preposition; as *ón tír, fán ngréin*.

6. In the plural the article (*na*) is often joined to the preposition; as *donna*, for *do na*.

7. The letter *s* is inserted between certain prepositions and the article *an*; and this occasionally leads to combinations that might puzzle a learner. Thus *ann an leabdar*, in the book, is written *anns an leabdar*, and *is an leabdar*, which is still further shortened to *san leabdar*: also (omitting the *n*) *annsa leabdar*, and even *sa leabdar*. And in the plural, *is na corpaib*, “in the bodies”

II. CHANGES PRODUCED BY THE ARTICLE.

1. The article produces certain changes in the initial letters of nonns to which it is prefixed.

2. These changes are very important, and the learner will obtain a clearer view of them by separating the singular from the plural. For more on this subject, see page 31.

SINGULAR.

1. If the noun begins with an aspirable consonant (except *s*, *τ*, *ϑ*), the article aspirates in the nominative feminine, and in the genitive masculine; as *an bó*, the cow; *cuann an fíor móir*, the harbour of the great man.

2. If the noun begins with *s*, followed by a vowel or by *l*, *n*, or *r*, the *s* is eclipsed by *τ* in those cases where, according to the last rule, a mutable consonant would be aspirated; as *an τ-sál* (fem.), the heel; *an τ-srón* (fem.), the nose; *luaic an τ-sriain* (masc), the price of the bridle.

3. If the noun begins with a vowel, the article prefixes *τ* to the nominative masculine, and *h* to the genitive feminine; as *an τ-adair*, the father; *leabdar na h-uirre*, the book of the dun (cow).

4. If the noun begins with an eclipsable consonant (except *ϑ* or *τ*), the article *generally* eclipses, if it be preceded by a simple preposition; as *air*

AN Ț-CRANN, on the tree; Ó'N Ț-FOCAL IBER, "from the word 'iber;" "LEIR AN Ț-FEAR, with the man.

5. But after the prepositions DO and DE, the article aspirates oftener than it eclipses; as CEITRE CÉIME DO'N ĆRIOR, four degrees of the zone (Keating); DO LEANADAR A Ț-COSA DO'N ĆARRAIS, their feet clung to the rock (story of the Children of Lir).

6. No change is produced by the article in the singular number, if the noun begins with L, N, R, D, T, or with S before a mute.

PLURAL.

1. If the noun begins with an eclipsable consonant, the article eclipses in the genitive; as INIS NA Ț-FÍOÖBΔÖ, [the] island of the woods; CAILÍN DEAS CRÚIÖTE NA M-BÓ, [the] pretty girl of [the] milking of the cows (i.e., the pretty milking girl).

2. If the noun begins with a vowel, the article prefixes N to the genitive, and H to the other cases; as TÍR NA N-ÓȚ, the land of the young (people); Ó NA H-ÁITIB SIN, from those places.

These are the only changes produced by the article in the plural.

CHAPTER II.

THE NOUN.

I. GENDER.

1. There are only two genders in the Irish language, the masculine and feminine: all Irish nouns, therefore, are either masculine or feminine gender.

2. In ancient Irish there was a neuter gender, but no trace of it remains in the modern language.

3. To know and remember the gender of all ordinary Irish nouns is one of the great difficulties in learning the language,

as it is in learning French and many other languages. Without this knowledge, which can only be mastered by practice, no one can speak or write Irish correctly.

4. There are a few general rules which will very much help the learner to distinguish the gender of nouns: they are only general rules, however, subject to many exceptions; and where they do not apply, the student must depend on practice and memory.

MASCULINE.

1. The following nouns are generally masculine:—

(1.) Names of males; as *coilead̃*, a cock; *lad̃* a hero; *fead̃*, a man.

(2.) Nouns of more than one syllable, ending in a consonant, or two consonants, preceded by a broad vowel; as *doĩc̃eall*, churlishness: except (a), derivatives in *ad̃c̃*; (b), diminutives in *óg̃*.

(3.) Nouns ending in *óir*, *aire*, *ad̃*, *aĩe* (or *oĩe*, or *uĩe*), when they denote personal agents, as they generally do; as *spealad̃óir*, a mower; *sealzaire*, a hunter; *ceitearnad̃*, a soldier—one of a body of *kerns*; *szealaĩe* or *szeuluĩe*, a story-teller.

(4.) Diminutives in *án* and abstracts in *as*; as *coileán*, a whelp; *cáirdeas*, friendship.

(5.) Diminutives in *ín* are of the same gender as the nouns from which they are derived.

FEMININE.

2. The following nouns are generally feminine:—

(1). Names of females; names of countries, rivers, and diseases; as *cearc*, a hen; *Eire*, Ireland; *bearb̃a*, the Barrow; *pláig̃*, a plague.

(2). Diminutives in *óg̃*, and derivatives in *ad̃c̃*; as *fuiseóg̃*, a lark; *cumrad̃c̃*, fragrance: and abstract nouns formed from the genitive feminine of adjectives; as *daile*, blindness.

(3). Nouns ending in a consonant, or in two consonants, preceded by a slender vowel (except those in *óir*); as *súil*, the eye; *féigilim*, learning.

II. DECLENSIONS.

CASES.

1. Irish nouns have four cases, that is, four different inflections, to express relation :—Nominative, genitive, dative, and vocative.

2. The nominative case is the same as the nominative in English.

3. The genitive is the same as what is called the possessive case in English.

4. The dative is the case where a noun is governed by a preposition.

5. The vocative case is the same as what is called the nominative of address in English.

6. Irish nouns have different forms for these four cases, and for no others. Thus, the four cases of *bradáin*, a salmon, are for the plural number, as follows:—Nom. *bradáin*, as *trí bradáin*, three salmon; gen. *bradáin*, as *loc na m-bradáin*, the lake of the salmon; dat. *bradáinaib*, as *do na bradáinaib*, to the salmon; voc. *bradáina*, as *a bradáina, ca é-fuil sibh ag dul?* “O ye salmon, whither are ye going?”

7. These four cases are not always different in form; thus the four cases of the same noun in the singular number are:—Nom, *bradáin*; gen. *bradáin*; dat. *bradáin*; voc. *bradáin*; in which it will be seen that the dative is the same as the nominative, and the vocative the same as the genitive.

8. Those cases which are alike in form are distinguished by the sense; just as the nominative and objective cases are distinguished in English.

9. Some writers on Irish grammar have put in two more cases, in imitation of Latin declension; the accusative (or, as it is called in English, the objective) and the ablative. But in Irish there are no separate inflections for them, the accusative being always the same in form as the nominative,

and the ablative the same as the dative; so that it would be only a useless puzzle to the learner to include them in a statement of Irish declension. In certain explanations, however, and in the statement of certain rules, it is sometimes convenient to speak of the accusative case.

10. Different nouns have different inflections for the same case; thus the datives singular of *cos*, a foot, and *ḃos*, a bush, are different, namely, *cois* and *ḃos*. But though this variation extends to most of the cases, the genitive singular is taken as the standard, in comparing the declension of one noun with the declension of another.

11. There are five chief ways of forming the genitive singular of Irish nouns; and in one or another of these ways, far the greatest number of nouns in the language form their genitive. There are usually reckoned, therefore, FIVE DECLENSIONS of Irish nouns.

12. Besides these there are other genitive inflections, but as no one of them comprises any considerable number of nouns, it is not considered necessary to lay down more than five declensions. The number of declensions is, however, very much a matter of convenience; and, accordingly, in some Irish grammars, there are more than five, and in some less.

FIRST DECLENSION.

1. The first declension comprises masculine nouns which have their characteristic vowel, that is, the last vowel of the nominative singular, broad.

2. The genitive singular is formed by attenuating the broad vowel.

3. In the singular, the dative is like the nominative, and the vocative is like the genitive; in the plural, the nominative is generally like the genitive singular, and the genitive like the nominative singular. Example, *ḃall*, a member or limb.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom.* βαλλ.	Nom. βαλλ.
Gen. βαλλ.	Gen. βαλλ.
Dat. βαλλ.	Dat. βαλλαιῶ.
Voc. Α βαλλ.	Voc. Α βαλλα.

4. The number of nouns that belong to this declension is very large; but though they all form their genitive singular in the same way (except those in **ΔĆ**, in which there is a slight additional change, for which see next paragraph), there are a few which vary in the formation of other cases.

5. Nouns in **ΔĆ**, in addition to the attenuation, change **Ć** into **ḡ** in the genitive singular; and generally form the nominative plural by adding **e** to the genitive singular; and from this again is formed the dative plural in **ῶ**, in accordance with the rule in Par. 9, page 23. Example, **μαρκαĆ**, a horseman.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. μαρκαĆ.	Nom. μαρκαῖε.
Gen. μαρκαῖḡ.	Gen. μαρκαĆ
Dat. μαρκαĆ.	Dat. μαρκαῖῶ.
Voc. Α μαρκαῖḡ.	Voc. Α μαρκαĆα.

6. A few nouns make their nominative plural by an increase in **Δ**; as **πεανν**, a pen; plur. **πεαννα**: and some of these are syncopated, as **υῶλλ**, an apple; plur. **υῶλα**.

7. In a few nouns of this declension the nominative plural is formed by adding **τΔ** or **čΔ** to the nominative singular; as **ρεόλ**, a sail; nom. plur. **σεόλτΔ**; dat. plur. **σεόλτΔῶ**: **μύρ**, a wall; nom. plur. **μύρčΔ**; dat. plur. **μύρčΔῶ**.

8. In many words of one syllable belonging to this declension, the attenuation in the genitive singular causes considerable change in the vowel or diphthongal part of the word; thus, **corp**, body; gen. **cuirp**: **ἰαςζ**, a fish; gen. **είςζ**:

*It would be well for the learner, when declining nouns, to call this "nominative and accusative" all through the declensions.

neART, strength; gen. **neIRT** or **nIRT**: **ƿEAR**, a man; gen. **ƿIR**: **CRAnn**, a tree; gen. **CRoinn**: **béAl**, a mouth; gen. **béil** or **beoil**.

The three following rules (9, 10, and 11) apply to all the declensions.

9. The dative plural ends in **ib̆**.

This **ib̆** corresponds with the Latin dative and ablative termination *ibus* or *bus*. It is now very seldom pronounced, but it is nearly always retained in writing; just as in English, *gh*, which was formerly sounded as a guttural in such words as *plough*, *daughter*, is retained in writing, though it is no longer pronounced.

10. The dative plural is formed from the nominative plural whenever this latter differs from the genitive singular: otherwise from the nominative singular.

11. The vocative is always preceded by the particle **Δ** or **O**, which aspirates the initial; as **Δ ƿIR**, O man; **Δ mnÁ**, O women; **O čížeARnΔ**, O Lord.

SECOND DECLENSION.

1. The second declension comprises most of the feminine nouns in the language.

2. The genitive singular is formed by adding **e** to the nominative. If the characteristic vowel is broad, it must be attenuated in accordance with the rule **cΔol le cΔol** &c.

3. The dative singular is formed from the genitive singular by dropping the final **e**.

4. When the characteristic vowel is broad, the nominative plural is formed from the nominative singular by adding **Δ**; when the characteristic vowel is slender, by adding **e**.

5. The genitive plural is generally like the nominative singular.

6. The vocative is usually the same as the nominative, and is accordingly omitted from the paradigm.

First example, seamróg, a shamrock.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. seamróg.	Nom. seomróga.
Gen. seamróige.	Gen. seamróg.
Dat. seamróig.	Dat. seamrógaib.

Second example, péist, a worm, a beast.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. péist.	Nom. péiste.
Gen. péiste.	Gen. péist.
Dat. péist.	Dat. péistib.

7. Nouns in $\Delta\acute{c}$, when they belong to this declension, change the \acute{c} to \acute{g} in the genitive singular: thus, cláirse $\Delta\acute{c}$, a harp, is declined as follows:—

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. cláirse $\Delta\acute{c}$.	Nom. cláirse $\Delta\acute{c}\Delta$.
Gen. cláirsige.	Gen. cláirse $\Delta\acute{c}$.
Dat. cláirsig.	Dat. cláirse $\Delta\acute{c}\Delta$ ib.

8. There are many nouns belonging to this declension which depart from the general rule laid down in Par. 4, in forming their nominative plural.

9. Some, probably over fifty, form the nominative plural by adding $\Delta nn\Delta$; and these form the genitive plural by dropping the final Δ of this termination; thus, cúis, a cause; nom. plural cúiseanna; gen. plural, cúiseann; dat. plural, cúiseannaib.

10. Some form their nominative plural by adding $\Delta\acute{c}\Delta$: thus, obair, a work, and oráid, a prayer, make oibse $\Delta\acute{c}\Delta$ and oráide $\Delta\acute{c}\Delta$ in the nominative plural.

11. When the characteristic vowel is slender, i is often dropped in the genitive plural; as fuaim, a sound; gen. plural fuam.

12. When the nominative plural takes τe , the genitive plural is formed by adding $\Delta\grave{o}$; as coil, a wood; nom. plur. coilte; and genitive plural as

seen in $\text{Oileán na g-coillte}$, the island of the woods (Keating).

13. There are other variations of the nominative and genitive plural; but they do not comprise any considerable number of nouns, and they must be learned by practice.

THIRD DECLENSION,

1. Nouns belonging to the third declension are some of them masculine and some feminine.

2. The genitive singular is formed by adding Δ to the nominative singular.

3. The vocative is like the nominative.

4. The nominative plural is generally formed by adding Δ or e .

5. The genitive plural is generally like the nominative singular. Example, cleas , a trick or feat.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. cleas .	Nom. $\text{cleas}\Delta$.
Gen. $\text{cleas}\Delta$.	Gen. cleas .
Dat. cleas .	Dat. $\text{cleas}\Delta\text{ib}$.

6. If the characteristic vowel is slender, it must be made broad in the genitive singular, in accordance with the rule caol le caol \&c. ; as toil , the will gen. $\text{toil}\Delta$.

7. Sometimes τ or t is introduced before the Δ of the genitive singular, which commonly causes other changes by syncope; as $\text{co}\text{th}\Delta\text{il}$, sleep; gen. $\text{co}\text{th}\Delta\text{il}\tau\Delta$: $\text{bu}\Delta\text{il}\text{th}\text{il}\tau$, trouble, gen. $\text{bu}\Delta\text{il}\text{th}\text{il}\text{th}\Delta$.

8. This is the case with verbal or participial nouns in Δth , $\text{e}\Delta\text{th}$, and $\text{u}\text{g}\Delta\text{th}$, the genitives of which have the same form as their passive participles considered as verbs; and they are all commonly reckoned as belonging to this declension, though the genitive singular is formed in some by adding

e, not Δ; as *molΔð*, praising; gen. *molτΔ*: *síneΔð* stretching; gen. *sínτε*: *caoluğΔð*, making slender; gen. *caoluiğče*.

9. Nouns in Δčτ generally, and those in eΔs or ios, often, belong to this declension; as *clisteΔčτ*, dexterity; gen. *clisteΔčτΔ*: *ðoilğios*, sorrow; gen. *ðoilğiosΔ*. But the greater number of those in eΔs or ios belong to the first declension; thus the last noun, *ðoilğios*, is often made *ðoilğis* in the genitive; and *bronnτΔnar*, a gift, makes *bronnτΔnair*.

10. There are forty or fifty nouns (many of them ending in is), which form their genitive singular in Δč, and which are reckoned as belonging to this declension, though some writers arrange them under a separate declension; as *cačΔair*, a city; gen. *cačpΔč*: *τeΔmΔair*, Tara, gen. *τeΔmΔpΔč*: *ğrÁin*, hatred; gen. *ğrÁnΔč*.

11. Those in ir generally form their genitive as above; but *ΔčΔair*, a father; *mÁčΔair*, a mother; and *brÁčΔair*, a brother, form their genitive by dropping the final i:—gen. *ΔčΔar*, *mÁčΔar*, *brÁčΔar*.

12. Outside the general rule stated in Par. 4 above, there is considerable variety in the formation of the nominative plural.

13. Those in óir generally make the nominative plural by adding iðe; as *speΔlΔðóir*, a mower, nom. plur. *speΔlΔðóiriðe*.

14. And these form the genitive plural variously; generally na *speΔlΔðóiriðð*, but sometimes na *speΔlΔðóir* or na *speΔlΔðópΔč*.

15. Others form the nominative plural either like the genitive singular or by adding nna to it; as *sputč*, a stream; gen. *spočΔ*; nom. pl. *spočΔ* or *spočΔnna*: *ðruim*, a back; gen. *ðroma*; nom. plur. *ðroma* or *ðromanna*.

16. Those that add **nnΔ**, form the genitive plural by omitting the **Δ**; as **sruč**; gen. plur. **sručΔnn**.

17. Many nouns of this declension that end in **n** or **l**, form their plural by adding **τε** or **τΔ**; as **móin**, a bog; gen. sing, **mónΔ**; nom. plur. **móιντε**.

18. And these generally form their genitive plural by adding **Δϑ** to the nominative plural; as **móin**; gen. plur. **móιντεΔϑ**.

19. Those that form their genitive singular in **Δć** (10) form the plural by adding **Δ** to this **Δć**: as **λσΔιρ**, a flame; gen. sing, **λσρΔć**; nom. plur. **λσρΔćΔ**.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

1. Nouns of the fourth declension end in vowels or in **ín**, and are some of them masculine and some feminine.

2. There is no inflection in the singular, all the cases being alike.

3. The nominative plural is generally formed by adding **ιϑε** or **ΔϑΔ** (with occasionally an obvious vowel change). Example, **áιρνε**, a sloe.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. áιρνε .	Nom. áιρνιϑε .
Gen. áιρνε .	Gen. áιρνεΔϑ .
Dat. áιρνε .	Dat. áιρνιϑιϑ .

4. Some form the plural by adding **τε** or **će**: as **τειννε**, a fire; nom. plur. **τεινντε**: **βαοι**, a clown; nom. plur. **βαοιće**; and **αιćνε**, a commandment, has nom. plur. **αιćeΔντΔ**.

5. These generally form the genitive plural, by adding **ϑ** or **Δϑ** (not to the nominative singular, as in the model, but) to the nominative plural: as nom. plur. **ϑΔοιće**, clowns; gen. plur. **ϑΔοιćeΔϑ**.

6. Nouns ending in **αιϑε**, **υιϑε**, and **αιρε**, generally belong to this declension; as **σclάβυιϑε**, a slave; **πίοβαιρε**, a piper.

FIFTH DECLENSION.

1. Nouns of the fifth declension are mostly feminine.

2. They generally end in a vowel; and they form their genitive by adding *n* or *nn*, and occasionally *o* or *u*.

3. The dative singular is formed from the genitive by attenuation.

4. The nominative plural is formed from the genitive singular by adding *a*.

5. The genitive plural is like the genitive singular. Example, *ursa*, a door jamb.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>ursa</i> .	Nom. <i>ursana</i> .
Gen. <i>ursan</i> .	Gen. <i>ursan</i> .
Dat. <i>ursain</i> .	Dat. <i>ursanaib</i> .

6. To this declension belong the proper names *Eire*, Ireland; gen. *Eireann*, dat. *Eirinn*: *Alba*, Scotland; gen., *Alban*, dat. *Albain*: *Mum*, Munster; gen. *Muman*, dat. *Mumain*; and several others of less note.

7. *Cara*, a friend, is an example of the genitive in *o*: nom. *Cara*: gen. *Carao*; dat. *Caraib*; nom. plur. *cáirde*.

8. There is a good deal of variety in the formation of the cases of nouns belonging to this declension, which can only be learned by practice.*

IRREGULAR DECLENSION.

1. Some nouns are irregular; that is, they are not inflected in accordance with any of the regular declensions.

2. The most important of the irregular nouns are :*—*bean*, a woman; *bó*, a cow; *brú*, a womb;

* For additional examples of declensions of nouns, both regular and irregular, see Appendix at the end of the book.

CAORA, a sheep; ceó, a fog; cnó, a hut; cú, a hound; ƧΙΑ, God; ιά, a day; mí, a month; o or ua, a grandson. They are declined as follows. (The vocative is not given where it is like the nominative.)

bean, a woman, fem.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>bean.</i>	Nom. <i>mná.</i>
Gen. <i>mná.</i>	Gen. <i>ban.</i>
Dat. <i>mnaoi.</i>	Dat. <i>mnáib.</i>

bó, a cow, fem.

Nom. <i>bó.</i>	Nom. <i>bá.</i>
Gen. <i>bó.</i>	Gen. <i>bó.</i>
Dat. <i>buin.</i>	Dat. <i>búaið.</i>

brú, a womb, fem.

Nom. <i>brú.</i>	Nom. <i>bronna.</i>
Gen. <i>brumne</i> or <i>bronn.</i>	Gen. <i>bronn.</i>
Dat. <i>broinn.</i>	Dat. <i>bronnaib.</i>

CAORA, a sheep, fem.

Nom. <i>CAORA.</i>	Nom. <i>CAOIRĠ,</i>
Gen. <i>CAORAĈ.</i>	Gen. <i>CAORAĈ.</i>
Dat. <i>CAORA.</i>	Dat. <i>CAORĈAIB.</i>
Voc. <i>A ĈAORA.</i>	Voc. <i>A ĈAORĈA.</i>

Ceó, a fog, masc.

Nom. <i>ceó.</i>	Nom. <i>ciað.</i>
Gen. <i>ciaĈ</i> or <i>ceoiĠ.</i>	Gen. <i>ceó.</i>
Dat. <i>ceó.</i>	Dat. <i>ceóĈAIB.</i>

Cnó or cnú, a nut, masc.

Nom. <i>cnó.</i>	Nom. <i>cná, cnai.</i>
Gen. <i>cnó, cnui.</i>	Gen. <i>cnóð.</i>
Dat. <i>cnó, cnú.</i>	Dat. <i>cnáib.</i>

Cú, a hound, masc, or fem.

Nom. cú.	Nom. coin, cuin, cona, or coiñe.
Gen. con.	Gen. con.
Dat. coin.	Dat. conaib̃.

Ḑia, God, masc.

Nom. Ḑia.	Nom. Ḑée, Ḑéĩe.
Gen. Ḑé.	Gen. Ḑia, ḐéĩeΔb̃.
Dat. Ḑia.	Dat. Ḑéib̃, Ḑéĩib̃.
Voc. Δ Ḑhé or Δ Ḑhia.	Voc. Δ Ḑhée, Ḑhéĩe.

lá, a day, masc.

Nom. lá.	Nom. laẽe.
Gen. lae.	Gen. laẽeΔb̃, lá.
Dat. lá, ló.	Dat. laẽib̃.

mí, a month, fem.

Nom. mí.	Nom. míosa.
Gen. mís, míosa.	Gen. míos.
Dat. mí, mís.	Dat. míosaib̃.

O or ua, a grandson, masc.

Nom. ó, ua.	Nom. uí.
Gen. i, uí.	Gen. ua.
Dat. o, ua.	Dat. ib̃, uib̃.
Voc. Δ, uí.	Voc. Δ, uí.

DECLENSION OF THE ARTICLE
WITH THE NOUN.

1. The initial changes produced by the article in the nouns to which it is prefixed have been set forth at page 17 ; these changes must be carefully observed in declining nouns with the article.

2. Twelve typical examples are here given, corresponding with the several cases mentioned in paragraphs 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6, pages 17, 18; and these examples include almost every possible variety. There is a good deal of difference of usage in the dative singular of nouns beginning with s.

3. The declension of the singular number only is given; the changes in the plural are so very simple (see page 18) that they can present no difficulty.

4. Colg, a sword, masc. Nom. an colg; gen. an cuilg; dat. leis an g-colg (Par. 4, p. 17), or do'n colg (Par. 5, p. 18).

5. Cailleac, a hag, fem. Nom. an cailleac; gen. na caillice; dat. ó'n g-caillic or do'n caillic.

6. Saoxal, the world, masc. Nom. an saoxal; gen. an t-saoxail; dat. ó'n saoxal or do'n t-saoxal (Par 5, p. 18).

7. Sabóir, the Sabbath, fem. Nom an t-Sabóir; gen. na Sabóire; dat. ó'n Sabóir or do'n t-Sabóir (Pars. 2 and 5, pp. 17 and 18.)

8. Slat, a rod, fem. Nom. an t-slat; gen. na slait; dat. leis an slait or do'n t-slait.

9. Sról, satin, masc. Nom. an sról; gen. an t-sróil; dat. ó'n sról or do'n t-sról.

10. Asal, an ass, masc. Nom. an t-asal; gen. an asail; dat. ó'n asal.

11. Inis, an island, fem. Nom. an inis; gen. na h-inse; dat. do'n inis.

12. leac, a stone, fem. Nom. an leac; gen. na leice; dat. do'n leic (Par. 6, p. 18).

13. Díle, a deluge, fem. Nom. an díle; gen. na díleann; dat. do'n dílinn.

14. Sgeul, a story, masc. Nom. an sgeul; gen. an sgeíl; dat. ó'n sgeul.

15. Speal, a scythe, fem. Nom. an speal; gen. na speile; dat. leis an speil.

CHAPTER III. THE ADJECTIVE,

I. DECLENSION OF ADJECTIVES.

1. In Irish the adjective changes its form according to the gender, case, and number of the noun.

2. Adjectives are declined in much the same manner as nouns; but they never take the inflection *ib* in the dative plural (though anciently they had this inflection like nouns): the dative plural of an adjective is like the nominative plural.

3. There are usually reckoned four declensions of adjectives.

4. The inflections of these four declensions follow those of the noun so closely, that when the noun is mastered the adjective presents no difficulty.

FIRST DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the first declension are those that end in a consonant preceded by a broad vowel, as *bán*, white; *ḟliuċ*, wet.

2. In the masculine gender (i.e., when the adjective belongs to a masculine noun), they are declined the same as nouns of the first declension of the type of *bail*, except that the nominative plural always ends in *Δ*.

3. In the feminine gender adjectives are declined the same as nouns of the second declension of the type of *seamróz*.

4. Both genders are alike in the plural. Example, *bán*, white.

Singular,		Plural.
Masc.	Fem.	Masc. and Fem.
Nom. $\beta\acute{\alpha}\nu$.	$\beta\acute{\alpha}\nu$.	Nom. $\beta\acute{\alpha}\nu\alpha$.
Gen. $\beta\acute{\alpha}\nu$.	$\beta\acute{\alpha}\nu\epsilon$.	Gen. $\beta\acute{\alpha}\nu$.
Dat. $\beta\acute{\alpha}\nu$.	$\beta\acute{\alpha}\nu$.	Dat. $\beta\acute{\alpha}\nu\alpha$.
Voc. $\beta\acute{\alpha}\nu$.	$\beta\acute{\alpha}\nu$.	Voc. $\beta\acute{\alpha}\nu\alpha$.

SECOND DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the second declension are those that end in a consonant preceded by a slender vowel.

2. In the singular, all the cases of both masculine and feminine are alike, except the genitive feminine, which takes ϵ .

3. In the plural, both genders are alike, and all the cases except the genitive are formed by adding ϵ ; the genitive is like the nominative singular.

Example, $\acute{\mu}\acute{\iota}\nu$, smooth, fine.

Singular.		Plural.
Masc.	Fem.	Masc. and Fern.
Nom. $\acute{\mu}\acute{\iota}\nu$.	$\acute{\mu}\acute{\iota}\nu$.	Nom. $\acute{\mu}\acute{\iota}\nu\epsilon$.
Gen. $\acute{\mu}\acute{\iota}\nu$.	$\acute{\mu}\acute{\iota}\nu\epsilon$.	Gen. $\acute{\mu}\acute{\iota}\nu$.
Dat. $\acute{\mu}\acute{\iota}\nu$.	$\acute{\mu}\acute{\iota}\nu$.	Dat. $\acute{\mu}\acute{\iota}\nu\epsilon$.
Voc. $\acute{\mu}\acute{\iota}\nu$.	$\acute{\mu}\acute{\iota}\nu$.	Voc. $\acute{\mu}\acute{\iota}\nu\epsilon$.

THIRD DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the third declension are those that end in $\Delta\acute{\mu}\Delta\iota\iota$, which has the same signification as the English postfix *like*:— $\beta\epsilon\Delta\iota\iota$, a woman $\beta\Delta\iota\iota\Delta\acute{\mu}\Delta\iota\iota$, womanlike, modest.

2. The two genders are always alike.

3. The four cases singular are alike except the genitive, which is formed by adding Δ , with a syncope.

4. In the plural, the genitive is the same as the nominative singular; and the other cases are the same as the genitive singular. Example, $\mu\alpha\iota\sigma\epsilon\Delta\acute{\mu}\Delta\iota\iota$, graceful.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>maiseamail.</i>	Nom. <i>maiseamla.</i>
Gen. <i>maiseamla.</i>	Gen. <i>maiseamail.</i>
Dat. <i>maiseamail.</i>	Dat. <i>maiseamla.</i>

FOURTH DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the fourth declension are those that end in vowels; as *móròΔ*, majestic.

2. They have no inflections, being alike in all cases, numbers, and genders.

II. DECLENSION OF THE ADJECTIVE AND ARTICLE

WITH THE NOUN.

1. The rules for the aspiration of the initial consonants of adjectives agreeing with nouns are given at p. 10; and these rules must be very carefully observed in declining nouns with adjectives.

2. It maybe added here that *ð* and *τ* sometimes resist aspiration, especially if they follow a noun ending in *n*. There is much variety of usage as to aspiration of adjectives in the dative singular.

3. When a noun is declined with both an adjective and the article, the initial of the adjective is generally eclipsed in the genitive plural (or takes *n* if it be a vowel).

4. Four typical examples are here given of the declension of the adjective with the noun. For the influence of the article see p. 17.

An capall bán, the white horse, masc.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>an capall bán.</i>	<i>na capall bána.</i>
Gen. <i>an capall bán.</i>	<i>na ġ-capall m-bán.</i>
Dat. <i>ón ġ-capall bán or</i> <i>m-bán.</i>	<i>óna capallaið bána</i>
Voc. <i>a ċapall bán.</i>	<i>a ċapalla bána.</i>

Ἀν ἴσειός βεας, *the little lark, fem.*

Nom. Ἀν ἴσειός βεας. ἡ ἴσειός βεας.
 Gen. ἡ ἴσειός βεας. ἡ ἴσειός βεας.
 Dat. ὅν ἴσειός βεας. ὅν ἴσειός βεας.
 Voc. ἦ ἴσειός βεας. ἦ ἴσειός βεας.

Ἀν ἄρῳ, *the high hill, masc.*

Nom. Ἀν ἄρῳ. ἡ ἄρῳ.
 Gen. ἡ ἄρῳ. ἡ ἄρῳ.
 Dat. ὅν ἄρῳ. ὅν ἄρῳ.
 Voc. ἦ ἄρῳ. ἦ ἄρῳ.

Ἀν ῥῶ, *the black cow, fem.*

Nom. Ἀν ῥῶ. ἡ ῥῶ.
 Gen. ἡ ῥῶ. ἡ ῥῶ.
 Dat. ὅν ῥῶ. ὅν ῥῶ.
 Voc. ἦ ῥῶ. ἦ ῥῶ.

III. COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

1. Irish, adjectives have three degrees of comparison, the same as English adjectives.

2. The positive is the simple form of the adjective; as ἄρῳ, high; ἡ ἄρῳ, princely.

3. The comparative and the superlative have the same form, which is that of the genitive singular feminine; as ἄρῳ, ἡ ἄρῳ; and they are distinguished by prefixed particles, or by the context.

4. The comparative has generally the particle *níos* (or *níos* or *nís*) prefixed, and it is usually followed by *νά*, than (spelled also *ἡ* and *ἡ*); as *τά* ἡ *τε* *so níos ἄρῳ* *νά* ἡ *τε* *sin*,

this house is higher than that house: $\Delta\tau\acute{\alpha}$ $\Delta\eta$ $\lambda\alpha\omicron\varsigma$ $\acute{\upsilon}\nu$ $\acute{\nu}\acute{\iota}\omicron\varsigma$ $\phi\lambda\alpha\iota\tau\epsilon\alpha\mu\lambda\alpha$ $\acute{\nu}\acute{\alpha}$ $\Delta\eta$ $\rho\acute{\iota}\zeta$ $\phi\acute{\epsilon}\mu$, "yonder champion is more princely than the king himself."

5. The superlative is often preceded by $\iota\varsigma$ or $\alpha\varsigma$, with the article expressed before the noun; as $\Delta\eta$ $\phi\epsilon\alpha\rho$ $\iota\varsigma$ $\phi\lambda\alpha\iota\tau\epsilon\alpha\mu\lambda\alpha$ $\varsigma\alpha\eta$ $\tau\acute{\iota}\rho$, the most princely man in the country.

6. In the comparative, $\acute{\nu}\acute{\iota}\omicron\varsigma$ is omitted when the assertion or question is made by the verb $\iota\varsigma$ in any of its forms, expressed or understood; as $\beta\alpha$ $\ddot{\upsilon}\iota\breve{\upsilon}\epsilon$ Δ $\zeta\rho\upsilon\alpha\varsigma$ $\acute{\nu}\acute{\alpha}$ $\Delta\eta$ $\zeta\upsilon\alpha\lambda$, "her hair was blacker than the coal;" $\iota\varsigma$ $\zeta\iota\lambda\epsilon$ $\varsigma\eta\epsilon\alpha\acute{\varsigma}\tau\alpha$ $\acute{\nu}\acute{\alpha}$ $\beta\alpha\iota\eta\eta\epsilon$, snow is whiter than milk; $\Delta\eta$ $\phi\epsilon\acute{\alpha}\rho\bar{\rho}$ $\ddot{\nu}\omicron$ $\ddot{\nu}\epsilon\alpha\rho\ddot{\nu}\rho\alpha\acute{\tau}\alpha\iota\rho$ $\acute{\nu}\acute{\alpha}$ $\acute{\epsilon}\acute{\upsilon}\varsigma\alpha$? is thy brother better than thou?

7. When the characteristic particles are not expressed, the construction generally determines whether the adjective is comparative or superlative; as $\Delta\eta$ $\epsilon\alpha\lambda\Delta\ddot{\upsilon}\Delta\eta$ $\iota\varsigma$ $\upsilon\alpha\iota\varsigma\lambda\epsilon$ $\acute{\nu}\acute{\alpha}$ $\phi\iota\lambda\ddot{\iota}\breve{\upsilon}\epsilon\alpha\acute{\varsigma}\tau$, the art which is nobler than poetry; $\Delta\eta$ $\epsilon\alpha\lambda\Delta\ddot{\upsilon}\Delta\eta$ $\iota\varsigma$ $\upsilon\alpha\iota\varsigma\lambda\epsilon$ $\Delta\iota\rho$ $\beta\iota\acute{\varsigma}$, "the art which is the noblest in the world."

8. An adjective in the comparative or superlative is not inflected; all the cases being alike in form.

IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

1. The following adjectives are irregularly compared. There are a few others, but their departure from rule is so slight as not to require notice.

2. $\lambda\iota\alpha$ is a comparative as it stands, signifying more (in number); but it has no positive, unless $\iota\omicron\mu\ddot{\upsilon}\Delta$ or $\mu\acute{\omicron}\rho\acute{\alpha}\eta$ (many), or some such word, be considered as such.

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
beaz, little.	níos luḡa.	is luḡa.
faḃa, long.	níos faḃe, níos sia.	is faḃe, is sia.
furus or urus, easy.	níos fusa, níos usa.	is fusa, is usa.
maič, } good.	níos feárr.	is feárr.
ḃeaz, }		
minic, often.	níos mionca.	
mór, great.	níos mó.	is mó.
olc, bad.	níos meara.	is meara.
teic, hot.	níos teó.	is teó.

3. There are certain particles which, when prefixed to adjectives, intensify their signification; and in accordance with the rule in Par. 4, page 10, they aspirate the initials of the adjectives.

4. The principal of these are an, fíos, ró, sár, ús: as maič, good; an-maič, very good: ḡráḡna, ugly; fíos-ḡráḡna, excessively ugly: móR, large; ró-móR, very large: láidoir, strong; sár-láidoir, very strong, &c.

IV. NUMERAL. ADJECTIVES.

1. The following is a list of the most important of the numerals, both cardinal and ordinal.

For the influence of some of them in aspirating and eclipsing, and for other syntactical influences on the noun, see Syntax.

Cardinal.	Ordinal.
1. aon.	1st. céad.
2. dó, dá.	2nd. dara.
3. tri. teóra.	3rd. treas.
4. ceachtair, ceitre.	4th. ceachtarad.
5. cúig.	5th. cúigead.
6. sé.	6th. seisead.
7. seacht	7th. seachtarad.
8. ocht	8th. ochtarad.
9. naoi.	9th. naotarad.
10. deic.	10th. deachtarad.
11. aon déag.	11th. aonarad déag.

12.	ḡó ḡéaḡ, ḡá béaḡ.	12th.	ḡARA ḡéaḡ.
13.	ṡrí ḡéaḡ.	13th.	ṡREAS ḡéaḡ.
	And so on, up to and including 19.		
20.	ḡice.	20th.	ḡiceaḡ.
21.	{ ḡon ḡ's ḡice, ḡon AIR ḡicḡ.	21st.	{ ḡonḡaḡ AIR ḡicḡ.
	And so on, up to 29.		
30.	{ ṡRIOĊAḡ, ṡRIOĊA, ḡeic ḡ's ḡice.	30th.	{ ṡRIOĊAḡaḡ, ḡeaċḡaḡ AIR ḡicḡ.
33.	{ ṡRÍ AIR ṡRIOĊAIR, ṡRÍ ḡéaḡ ḡ's ḡice.	33rd.	{ ṡREAS AIR ṡRIO- ĊAIR, ṡREAS ḡéaḡ AIR ḡicḡ.
40.	{ ḡá ḡicḡ, ceaċ- RAĊA, ceaċRA- ĊAḡ.	40th.	ceaċRAĊAḡaḡ.
50.	CAOḡA, CAOḡAḡ.	50th.	CAOḡAḡaḡ.
60.	{ seASḡAḡ, seASḡA, ṡRÍ ḡicḡ.	60th.	{ seASḡAḡaḡ, ṡRÍ ḡicḡeaḡ.
70.	{ seāċṡḡoḡA, seāċṡ- ḡoḡAḡ, ḡeaċ ḡ's ṡRÍ ḡicḡ.	70th.	{ seāċṡḡoḡAḡaḡ, ḡeaċḡaḡ AIR ṡRÍ ḡicḡ.
80.	{ oċṡḡoḡA, oċṡ- ḡoḡAḡ, ceiṡre ḡicḡ.	80th.	{ oċṡḡoḡAḡaḡ, ceiṡre ḡicḡ- eaḡ.
90.	{ noĊA, noĊAḡ, ḡeic ḡ's ceiṡre ḡicḡ.	90th.	{ noĊAḡaḡ, ḡeaċ- ḡaḡ AIR ceiṡ- re ḡicḡ.
100.	CÉAḡ.	100th.	CÉAḡaḡ.
1,000.	míle.	1,000th.	míleaḡ.
2,000.	ḡá míle.	2,000th.	ḡá míleaḡ.
1,000,000.	milliún.	1,000,000th.	milliúnaḡ.

2. ḡó and ceaċAIR are used only in the absence of nouns, i.e. merely as the names of the numbers; but ḡá and ceiṡre are always used when the nouns are expressed; as ḡá ċlUAIR, two ears; ceiṡre ḡIR, four men.

3. ḡice is declined:—Nom ḡice; gen. ḡiceaḡ; dat. ḡicḡ; nom. plur. ḡicḡ.

4. CéAḡ has gen. céirḡ; nom. pl. céAḡA or céAḡṡA.

5. The following nouns, which are all except

beirt, formed from the numerals, are applied to persons only :—

ḃías, ḃís,	two persons.	seachtar,	} seven persons
beirt,	a couple.	mós-seisear,	
triúr,	three persons.	oachtar,	eight „
ceachtar,	four „	nonðar,	nine „
cúigear,	five „	naonðar,	ten „
seisear,	six „	deicneadðar,	

CHAPTER IV.

THE PRONOUN.

1. There are in Irish six kinds of pronouns :— Personal, Possessive, Relative, Demonstrative, Interrogative, and Indefinite.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

1. There are four personal pronouns—**mé**, I; **tú**, thou; **sé**, he; **sí**, she; with their plurals, **sinn**, we; **sib**, ye or you; and **siad**, they. These are the simple forms of the personal pronouns.

2. Each of these takes an emphatic increase or postfixed syllable, equivalent to the English word *self*; and the whole word thus formed is called the emphatic form. The emphatic syllables vary their vowel part in accordance with the rule **caol le caol** &c.

3. The following are the emphatic forms:— **Mise** or **mesí**, myself; **túsá**, thyself; **sésean**,

himself; sise, herself; sinne, ourselves; siöre, yourselves; siadsan themselves.

4. The word féin, self, is often added to the personal pronouns, not as a particle but as a separate word; and it is still more emphatic than the particles mentioned in last paragraph:— mé féin, I myself; sí féin, she herself.

5. The personal pronouns are all declined ; and they may carry the emphatic increase through all the cases.

6. The personal pronouns (except mé), unlike nouns, have a distinct form for the accusative (or objective) case. It is, of course, only the pronoun éú that is used in the vocative.

DECLENSION OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

The declension of the emphatic form of mé is given as an example: observe, in this, the vowel changes in obedience to caol le caol &c.

Mé, I.

Singular.		Plural.	
Nom.	mé, I.	Nom.	sinn, we.
Gen.	mo, mine.	Gen.	ár, our.
Dat.	dom, dam, to me.	Dat.	búinn, to us.
Acc.	mé, me.	Acc.	inn or sinn, us.

Mise, myself (emphatic form).

Nom.	mise, mesi, myself.	Nom.	sinne, ourselves.
Gen.	mo-sa, my own.	Gen.	ár-ne, our own.
Dat.	domsa, damsa, to myself.	Dat.	dúinne, to ourselves.
Acc.	mise, mesi, myself.	Acc.	inne, sinne, ourselves.

Tú, thou.

Nom.	tú.	Nom.	siö.
Gen.	do.	Gen.	öur, öar.
Dat.	duit.	Dat.	daoiö, díö.
Acc.	éú.	Acc.	iö, siö.
Voc.	éú.	Voc.	siö, iö.

Sé, he.

Nom. sé.

Nom. síad.

Gen. a.

Gen. a.

Dat. do.

Dat. dóib.

Acc. é.

Acc. iad.

Sí, she.

Nom. sí.

Nom. síad.

Gen. a.

Gen. a.

Dat. di.

Dat. dóib.

Acc. í.

Acc. iad.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS COMPOUNDED WITH
PREPOSITIONS.

1. In Irish, the personal and the possessive pronouns unite with prepositions, each compound forming a single word.

2. In each case the preposition and the pronoun are amalgamated, and the latter changes its form, so as to be considerably, and in some cases completely, disguised.

3. These “prepositional pronouns,” as they are sometimes called, are of constant occurrence in the language—scarce a sentence in which they are not met with: they are therefore of great importance, and the learner should get them all off by heart.

4. The following prepositions unite with personal pronouns:—**a**g; **a**ir or **a**r; **a**nn or **i**; **a**s; **c**um; **d**e; **d**o; **e**idir or **i**dir; **f**á or **f**aoi; **l**e; **o** or **u**a; **ro**im; **se**a; **t**a; **t**ré; **u**a; **u**m or **i**m.

5. The following are the combinations of these prepositions with the personal pronouns.

6. The emphatic particles may be used with these combinations also, as well as with the uncompounded pronouns, of which one example is given.

Δζ, at or with.

Singular.

Δζαμ, with or at me.
 Δζατ, agab, with thee.
 Δζε, with him.
 Δισε or Διχι, with her.

Plural.

Δζαινν, with us.
 Δζαιβ, with you.
 Αα or Αυ, with them.

The same with the emphatic increase.

Δζαμσα, with myself.
 Δζατσα, with th self.
 Δζεσεαν, with himself.
 Δισει, with herself.

Δζαιννε, with ourselves.
 Δζαιβσε, with ourselves.
 Αασαν, with themselves.

Διρ or Δρ, upon.

Ορμ, on me.
 Ορτ, on thee.
 Διρ, on him.
 Υιρρε, on her.

Ορραινν, on us.
 Αρραιβ, on you.
 Ορρα, Ορτα, on them.

Ann or ι, in.

Ιονναμ, in me.
 Ιοννατ, Ιονναδ, in thee.
 Ann, in him.
 ιννε, ινντι, in her.

Ιονναινν, Ιονναιν, in us.
 Ιονναιβ, in you.
 Ιονντα, in them.

Δς, out of.

Ασαμ, out of me.
 Ασατ, Ασαδ, out of thee.
 Δς, out of him.
 Αιστε, Αιστι, out of her.

Ασαινν, out of us.
 Ασαιβ, out of you.
 Αστα, Αστυ, out of them.

Ćum, towards, unto.

Ćuζαμ, unto me.
 Ćuζατ, unto thee.
 Ćuζε, unto him.
 Ćuχι, unto her.

Ćuζαινν, unto us.
 Ćuζαιβ, unto you.
 Ćuca, unto them. '

Όε, from or off.

Όίom, off or of me.
 Όίot, off thee.
 Όε, off him.
 Όι, off her.

Όίνν, off us.
 Όιβ, off you.
 Όίοβ, off them.

Ṫo, *to*.

Ṫam, Ṫom, Ṫam̃, to me.

Ṫuit, to thee.

Ṫo, to him.

Ṫi, to her.

Ṫúinn, to us.

Ṫaoib̃, Ṫíb̃, to you.

Ṫóib̃, to them,

EiṪir, *between*.

eaṪram, between me.

eaṪrat, between thee.

eiṪir é, between him.

eiṪir i, between her.

eaṪrainn, between us.

eaṪraib̃, between you.

eaṪorra, between them,

Ṽá or Ṽaoi, *under*.

Ṽúm, under me.

Ṽút, under thee,

Ṽaoi, under him.

Ṽúite, under her.

Ṽúinn, under us.

Ṽúib̃, under you.

Ṽúta, under them.

le, *with*.

liom, with me.

leat, with thee.

leis, with him.

léite, léi, with her.

linn, with us.

lib̃, with you.

leó, with them.

le is often written re in books, and its pronominal combinations in this form are often met with. They are as follows:—

riom, with me.

riot, with thee.

ris, with him.

ria, with her.

rinn, with us.

rib̃, with you.

riu, with them,

O or ua, *from*.

uaim, from me.

uait, from thee.

uaò, from him.

uaite, uaiti, from her.

uainn, from us.

uaib̃, from you.

uaça, from them,

Roim̃, *before*.

róimam, before me.

róimat, before thee.

róime, before him.

róimpe, róimpi, before her.

rómainn, before us

rómaib̃, before you.

rómpa, before them.

Seac̣, beside.

seac̣am, beside me.

seac̣ac̣, beside thee.

seac̣ é, beside him.

seac̣ í, beside her.

seac̣ainn, beside us.

seac̣aiḃ, beside you.

seac̣a, beside them,

Ṭar, beyond, over.

ṭorm, ṭarm, over me.

ṭort, ṭart, over thee.

ṭairis, over him.

ṭairste, ṭairsi, over her.

ṭorrainn, ṭarrainn, over us.

ṭorraib̃, ṭarraib̃, over you.

ṭarrta, ṭarsa, over them,

Ṭre, through.

ṭríom, through me.

ṭríot, through thee.

ṭríḃ, through him.

ṭríce, ṭríci, through her.

ṭrínn, through us.

ṭríḃ, through you.

ṭríot̃a, through them,

Uas, above.

uasam, above me.

uasac, above thee.

uasa, above him.

uaste, uais̃i, above her.

uasainn, above us.

uasaiḃ, above you.

uasta, above them,

Um or im, about.

umam, about me.

umac, about thee.

ume, about him.

umpe, uimpi, about her.

umainn, about us.

umaiḃ, about you.

umpa, about them,

II. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The possessive pronouns, which are merely the genitives of the personal pronouns, are as follows:—mo, my; ṽo, thy; a, his or her; ár, our; ḃar or ḃur, your; a, their. The three possessives, a, his, a, her, and a, their, are distinguished by the initial letter changes of the next word. (See pp. 9, 11, 12; and see also Syntax.)

2. The *o* of *mo* and *vo* is omitted before a vowel or before *ř*; as *m'ΔčΔir*, my father; *m'řeΔRann*, my land. And *vo* is often changed, before a vowel, to *τ*, *č*, and *h*; as *τ'ΔčΔir*, *č'ΔčΔir*, or *h-ΔčΔir*, thy father.

3. The possessive pronouns also take the emphatic increase, with this peculiarity, however, that the emphatic particle always follows the noun that comes after the possessive, or if the noun be qualified by one or more adjectives, the emphatic particle comes last of all; and in accordance with the rule *caol le caol*, its vowel is generally broad or slender according as the last vowel of the word it follows is broad or slender; as *mo čeΔč-sΔ*, my house, or my own house; *mo čeΔč mór buiře-si*, my great yellow house. And these again may be followed by *řéin* (Par. 4, p. 40), rendering the expression still more emphatic; as *mo čeΔč-sΔ řéin*, my own house.

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS COMPOUNDED WITH PREPOSITIONS.

1. The possessive pronouns are amalgamated with prepositions, much in the same way as the personal pronouns; as *beir beΔnnačt óm čroiře*, bear a blessing *from my heart*.

2. The following are the most important of these combinations:—

Δnn, in.

Singular.	Plural,
<i>Δm, Δm', in my.</i>	<i>mÁR, 'nÁR, in our.</i>
<i>Δv, Δv', in thy.</i>	—
<i>ionΔ, inΔ, 'nΔ, in his or her.</i>	<i>ionΔ, inΔ, 'nΔ, in their.</i>

řo, to.

<i>řom, řom', to my.</i>	<i>řÁR, ř'ÁR, to our.</i>
<i>řov, řov', to thy.</i>	—
<i>řÁ, řΔ, to his or her.</i>	<i>řÁ, ř'Δ, to their.</i>

le, with.

lem, lem', with my.

ler, le'r, with our

leò, leò', with thy.

—

lena, le n-Δ, with his or her. lena, le n-Δ, with their.

Ó or uΔ from.

óm, óm', from my.

oár, ó'r, from our.

óò, óò', from thy.

—

óna, ó n-Δ, from his or her. óna, ó n-Δ, from their.

3. Those that are identical in form and different in meaning are distinguished by the initial letter changes they produce in the next word; as óna tíg, from his house; óna tíg, from her house; óna ð-tíg, from their house.

4. These combinations can also take the emphatic increase, like those of the personal pronouns, with the peculiarity, however, noticed in Par. 3, p. 45; as óm tíg mór árð-sa, from my great high house.

III. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. There are three relative pronouns in Irish :—
Δ, who, which, that; noč, who, which, that;
nač, which not; as Δn τέ Δ ðuaileas, the person who strikes; Δn liaig noč Δ ðeir go ð-fuil tú slán, the physician that says that you are well; Δn τέ nač ð-fuil láir, ní fuláir ðó ðeir glic, “the person who is not strong, it is necessary for him to be wise.”

2. Ðá sometimes takes the place of the relative Δ; and in some grammars it is counted as a distinct relative pronoun; as τάιð na gaoirta is feárr agum Ðá ð-fuil Δ ð-talam éreann, “I have

the best friends *that are* (to be found) in the land of Erin." And sometimes *do* stands for the relative *a*.

3. The relative *a* has sometimes the sense of "all which" or "all that;" as *beir beannaict cum a maireann de sholraic ir a's eibir*, "bear a blessing to *all that* live of the seed of Ir and Eber;" *a b-fuil san talam d'aicme Mhaine*, "*all that* are in the land of the tribe of Máinè."

4. The relative pronouns are not declined.

IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The demonstrative pronouns are *so*, *this*, *these*; *sin*, *that*, *those*; *sú* or *ú*, *yonder*: as *an fear so*, *this man*; *na mná sin*, *those women*; *sú í síos*, "*yonder she (moves) below*."

V. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. There are usually reckoned three interrogative pronouns:—*cia* or *cé*, *who?* *cá*, *what?* *where?* *cad* or *creud*, *what?* as *cia cruthuig tú?* *who created thee?* *cad deir tú?* *what sayest thou?* *ca b-fuil an fear sin?* *where is that man?* *creud is eigin?* *what is necessary?*

VI. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

1. The following are the principal indefinite pronouns:—

aon, *one*.

éigin, *some, certain*.

eile, *oile*, *other*.

các, *all*.

gac, *each, every*.

gac uile, *every*.

ceachtar, *either*.

uile, *all*.

a céile, *each other*.

an té, *an tí*, *the person who*.

cia b'é, *cibé*, *gibé*, *whoever*.

2. The indefinite pronouns are not declined; except $\text{c}^{\acute{\text{a}}}\text{c}$, which has a genitive form, $\text{c}^{\acute{\text{a}}}\text{i}\text{c}$; and $\text{\text{z}}^{\Delta}\text{c}$, which is sometimes made $\text{\text{z}}^{\Delta}\text{c}^{\Delta}$ in the genitive.

CHAPTER V.

THE VERB.

1. Irish verbs are inflected for number, person, mood, tense, and voice.

2. The conjugation is arranged, not according to the initial changes, but according to terminations.

3. As to the initial changes :—see pages 10 and 58 for the particles that aspirate, and page 12 for the particles that eclipse, the initials of verbs.

I. PERSONS: SYNTHETIC AND ANALYTIC FORMS.

1. The verb has three persons singular and three persons plural; and it has inflections for the whole six in the indicative and conditional moods of the active voice, except in one tense of the indicative.

2. The six forms of the present tense, indicative mood, active voice, of the verb $\text{\text{t}}^{\acute{\text{o}}}\text{\text{z}}$, take, are as follows:—

Singular.	Plural.
1. $\text{\text{t}}^{\acute{\text{o}}}\text{\text{z}}^{\Delta}\text{i}\text{m}$, I take.	1. $\text{\text{t}}^{\acute{\text{o}}}\text{\text{z}}^{\Delta}\text{m}^{\Delta}\text{o}\text{i}\text{o}$, we take.
2. $\text{\text{t}}^{\acute{\text{o}}}\text{\text{z}}^{\Delta}\text{i}\text{r}$, thou takest.	2. $\text{\text{t}}^{\acute{\text{o}}}\text{\text{z}}^{\Delta}\text{i}\text{o}\text{i}$, ye take.
3. $\text{\text{t}}^{\acute{\text{o}}}\text{\text{z}}^{\Delta}\text{i}\text{b}^{\text{h}}$ sé, he takes.	3. $\text{\text{t}}^{\acute{\text{o}}}\text{\text{z}}^{\Delta}\text{i}\text{b}^{\text{h}}$, they take.

3. This is what is called the synthetic form of the verb. The synthetic form is that in which the persons are expressed by inflections or terminations.

4. These six forms express the sense perfectly, without the accompaniment of the pronouns (except in the case of the third person singular): that is, $\tau\acute{o}\zeta\alpha\iota\rho$, as it stands, without using along with it the pronoun $\tau\acute{\upsilon}$, thou, expresses perfectly “thou takest;” and so of the others.

5. But there is another way of expressing the persons, singular and plural, namely, by using one form of the verb for the whole six, and putting in the pronouns to distinguish the persons and numbers. This is what is called the analytic form of the verb.

6. In this analytic mode of expressing the persons and numbers, the form of the verb that is used is the same as the form for the third person singular; and the persons singular and plural are expressed as follows:—

Singular.	Plural.
1. $\tau\acute{o}\zeta\alpha\iota\rho$ $\acute{m}\acute{e}$, I take.	1. $\tau\acute{o}\zeta\alpha\iota\rho$ $\sigma\iota\mu\eta$, we take.
2. $\tau\acute{o}\zeta\alpha\iota\rho$ $\tau\acute{\upsilon}$, thou takest.	2. $\tau\acute{o}\zeta\alpha\iota\rho$ $\sigma\iota\breve{o}$, ye take.
3. $\tau\acute{o}\zeta\alpha\iota\rho$ $\acute{s}\acute{e}$, he takes.	3. $\tau\acute{o}\zeta\alpha\iota\rho$ $\sigma\iota\alpha\breve{o}$, they take.

7. The third singular of the verb is not a synthetic form like the other five, that is, it does not include the pronoun as they do. In the third person singular, therefore, the pronoun must be always expressed in order to distinguish the number and person; unless there is a noun, or that the nominative is in some other way obvious from the construction.

8. But generally speaking it is not allowable to express any other pronoun along with the corresponding synthetic form of the verb:—For

example, it would be wrong to say *ḃéanaim mé* or *ḃéanamaoib sinn*, both expressions being tautological.

9. This rule, in the case of the third person plural, however, is sometimes not observed; for such expressions as *molaid siad* and *molfaid siad*—they praise, they will praise—are often met with, though *molaid* or *molfaid* alone would answer. And a like construction (in the third plural) is often used when the nominative is a plural noun, both in the present and in the past tense; as *triallaib mic Milead*, “the sons of Mile go;” *mar ḃo cóncaḃar na ḃraoiḃe*, “when the druids saw.”

10. The emphatic particles may be postfixed to all the persons of verbs, in the same manner as to pronouns and nouns (p. 39); as *molaim-se*, I praise; *molair-se*, thou praisest. And in all such cases, the word *féin* (p. 40) may be used to make the expression still more emphatic; as *ḃo cuirfinn-se féin mo leanb a cḃolad*, “I myself would put my child to sleep.”

11. The general tendency of modern languages is to drop synthetic forms, and to become more analytic. The English language, for example, has lost nearly all its inflections, and supplied their place by prepositions, conjunctions, adverbs, and auxiliary verbs. Following this tendency, the synthetic forms of the Irish verb are falling into disuse in the spoken language; and it has been already remarked (p. 23) that the noun-inflection *ib* is now seldom used in speaking. But all these forms are quite common in even the most modern Irish books; and the learner must, therefore, make himself quite familiar with them.

II. TENSES.

1. In English a regular verb has only two different forms to express tense:—I love, I loved;

all the other tenses are expressed by means of auxiliaries.

2. In Irish, a regular verb has five different forms in the indicative mood for tense. Reckoning those tenses only which are expressed by inflection, an Irish regular verb has therefore FIVE TENSES in the indicative mood.

3. The five tenses with the synthetic forms for the first person singular of the regular verb *ḡoir*, call, are :—

(1.) The present; *ḡoirim*, I call.

(2.) The consuetudinal or habitual present; *ḡoireann mé*, I am in the habit of calling.

(3.) The past, or simple past, or perfect (for it is known by all these three names); *ḡoird*, I called.

(4.) The consuetudinal or habitual past; *ḡoirdinn*, I used to call, or I used to be calling.

(5.) The future; *ḡoirfeadh*, I shall or will call.

III. MOODS AND VOICES.

1. The Irish regular verb has four moods:—The Imperative, the Indicative, the Conditional, and the Infinitive. These are the only moods for which the regular verb has distinct inflections.

2. There are, indeed, other moods, which are expressed, not by inflection, but by means of certain conjunctions and particles set before the verb; and these additional moods are given in conjugation in some Irish grammars; but as their forms do not differ from the forms of the four given in the last paragraph, they are not included here.

3. It is only the indicative mood of the verb that has tense inflection; in each of the other moods there is only one tense.

4. There are two voices, the active and the passive. It is only in the active voice that there are personal inflections ; in the passive voice, the three persons singular and the three persons plural have all six the same form, rendering it necessary, of course, that the pronoun be always expressed when there is no noun.

IV. CONJUGATION OF A REGULAR VERB.

buail, strike.

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

1.
2. buail, strike thou.
3. buaileadh sé, let him strike.

Plural.

1. buailimid, let us strike.
2. buailíod, strike ye.
3. buailíodís, let them strike.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. buailim, I strike.
2. buailir, thou strikest.
3. buailir sé, he strikes.

Plural.

1. buailimid, we strike.
2. buailí, ye strike.
3. buailir, they strike.

(For the relative form of this tense, see p. 55.)

Consuetudinal or habitual Present.

buaileann mé, I usually strike.

(The same form for all persons and numbers.)

Past.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. ðuáileas, I struck. | 1. ðuáileamar, we struck. |
| 2. ðuáilis, thou struckest. | 2. ðuáileaðar, ye struck. |
| 3. ðuáil sé, he struck. | 3. ðuáileaðar, they struck. |

Old form of Past.

- | | |
|-----------------|--|
| 1. ðuáileas. | 1. ðuáilseam or ðuáilsíom |
| 2. ðuáilis. | 2. ðuáileaðar. |
| 3. ðuáileastar. | 3. ðuáilseað, or ðuáilsíð, or ðuáilseaðar. |

Consuetudinal Past

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. ðuáilinn, I used to strike. | 1. ðuáilímís, we used to strike. |
| 2. ðuáilceá, thou usedst to strike. | 2. ðuáilcí, ye used to strike. |
| 3. ðuáileað pé, he used to strike. | 3. ðuáilróis, they used to strike. |

Future.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. buáilfeað, I will strike. | 1. buáilfímís, we will strike. |
| 2. buáilfir, thou wilt strike. | 2. buáilfrð, ye will strike. |
| 3. buáilfrð sé, he will strike. | 3. buáilfrð, they will strike. |

(For the relative form of this tense, see p. 55.)

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. ðuáilfinn, I would strike. | 1. ðuáilfímís, we would strike. |
| 2. ðuáilfeá, thou wouldst strike. | 2. ðuáilfrð, ye would strike. |
| 3. ðuáilfeað sé, he would strike. | 3. ðuáilfróis, they would strike. |

INF. MOOD. Ðo ðuálað, to strike. PART. Að buálað, striking.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

(The same as the Indicative Present.)

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular. Plural.

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|---|
| 1. buailtear mé, I am
struck. | 1. buailtear sinn or inn, we
are struck. |
| 2. buailtear tú, thou art
struck. | 2. buailtear sib or ib, ye are
struck. |
| 3. buailtear é, he is struck. | 3. buailtear iad, they are
struck. |

Consuetudinal Present.

*(Same as the Indicative Present.)**Past.*

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| 1. buaileadh mé, I was
struck. | 1. buaileadh sinn or inn, we
were struck. |
| 2. buaileadh tú, thou wast
struck. | 2. buaileadh sib or ib, ye
were struck. |
| 3. buaileadh é, he was
struck. | 3. buaileadh iad, they were
struck. |

Consuetudinal Past.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. buailtí mé, I used to be
struck. | 1. buailtí sinn or inn, we
used to be struck. |
| 2. buailtí tú, thou usedst
to be struck. | 2. buailtí sib or ib, ye used
to be struck. |
| 3. buailtí é, he used to be
struck. | 3. buailtí iad, they used to
be struck. |

Future.

Singular. Plural.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. buailfear mé , I shall or
will be struck. | 1. buailfear sinn or inn , we
shall or will be struck. |
| 2. buailfear tú , thou shalt
or wilt be struck. | 2. buailfear sib or ib , ye
shall or will be struck. |
| 3. buailfear é , he shall or
will be struck. | 3. buailfear iad , they shall
or will be struck. |

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. buailfíðe mé , I would
be struck. | 1. buailfíðe sinn or inn , we
would be struck. |
| 2. buailfíðe tú , thou
wouldst be struck. | 2. buailfíðe sib or ib , ye
would be struck. |
| 3. buailfíðe é , he would
be struck. | 3. buailfíðe iad , they would
be struck. |

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Do beir buailte, *to be struck*.

PARTICIPLE.

buailte, *struck*.

V. RELATIVE FORM OF THE VERB.

1. Besides the forms given in the preceding conjugation, the verb has what is called a "relative form," i.e., a form used after a relative pronoun. In two of the tenses of the indicative mood, namely, the present and the future, the relative form has a distinct inflection, viz., **as**, **is**, **eas**, or **íos**.

2. For instance, "the person who calls, is translated, not by **an té a góirið** (3rd sing, form), but by **an té a góireas**; and "he who will steal," is not **an té a góirfíð** (3rd sing, form), but **an té a góirfeas**. In other tenses and moods the

relative form is the same as that of the third person singular.

3. This form of the verb is often used even when its nominative is not a relative, but a noun or personal pronoun, to express the “historical present,” i.e., the present tense used for the past; as *ḡiaḡraigeas aimirgin a h-ainim òi*, “Amergin *asks* her name of her.” (See for a further account of the historical present, p. 57.)

4. And not unfrequently the relative form is used as an ordinary present; as, *Is mór an t-iongná liomsa, nac ò’Oisín iarras fionn mise*, “It is a great wonder to me that it is not for Oisín Finn *seeks* (iarrar) me.”

VI. FORMATION AND USES OF THE MOODS AND TENSES OF REGULAR VERBS.

1. The second person singular of the imperative mood, active voice, is the root or simplest form of the verb, from which all the other persons, moods, and tenses are formed directly, by affixing the various terminations.

2. Verbs which end in a consonant preceded by a slender vowel have all their inflections precisely like those of *buail* (with the exception mentioned in Par. 4, p. 60); and they all begin with a slender vowel (except sometimes that of the infinitive) in accordance with the rule *caol le caol* &c.

3. But when the final consonant is preceded by a broad vowel, the synthetic terminations begin with a broad vowel, in accordance with the same rule. A table of the full conjugation of a regular verb ending in a broad vowel is given at page. 64.

4. The root generally remains unchanged through all the variations of the verb, except that it occasionally suffers a trifling change in the infinitive. The cases in which the root suffers change in the infinitive are mentioned in Par. 4. p. 60. See also Par. 8, p. 63.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. The present tense is formed by affixing the six personal terminations *im* (or *aim*), *íp* (or *air*), &c, to the root.

2. The historical present, i.e., the present tense used for the past, or where past time is intended, is very common in Irish; indeed in many narrative and historical pieces it occurs quite as often as the ordinary past tense in relating past transactions; as, *Ḑala lē, iomorro, ollmuidēar long leis*, “as to Ith, indeed, a ship *is prepared* by him” (instead of *ollmuidēadō*, was prepared).

3. It has been already remarked (Par. 3, p. 56), that the relative form of the verb is often used for the historical present; as *noctas Eiremón ḏóib*, “Eremon reveals to them.”

Consuetudinal Past and Present.

1. These tenses express customary action; as *léigeanh mé*, I am in the habit of reading; *léigeadō sé*, he used to read, or he was in the habit of reading.

2. In the sentences, “I write always after breakfast,” and “he sold bread in his youth,” the verbs “write” and “sold” are used in the same manner as the Irish consuetudinal tense; except, indeed, that the idea is not so distinctly marked by the English phrase as by the Irish.

3. One of the particles *do* or *ro* is usually prefixed to the consuetudinal past; and the initial

consonant is generally aspirated; as *ṽo ḡoiriṽís*, they used to call.

4. The Irish peasantry seem to feel the want of these two tenses when they are speaking English; and they often, in fact, attempt to import them into the English language, even in districts where no Irish has been spoken for generations thus they will say, "I do be reading while you do be writing;" "I used to be walking every day while I lived in the country," &c.

Past Tense.

1. In the past tense the initial consonant is aspirated in the active voice, but not in the passive voice.

2. With the exception of the aspiration, the third singular past tense is the same as the root.

3. One of the particles *ṽo* or *ro* is generally prefixed to the past tense in both voices; as *ṽo ḡeasas*, I stood; *ro ḡoblais*, thou sleptest; *ṽo moladṽo idṽo*, they were praised; *ro buailadṽo é*, he was struck.

4. The particle *ro*, used as a mark of the past tense, is often compounded with other particles, the *r* only being retained, but it still causes aspiration in the active voice, as if it were un-compounded.

5. The principal of these compounds are :—

(1.) *Ar*, whether? from *an* and *ro*; as *ar buail sé*, did he strike ?

(2.) *Sur* that, from *so* and *ro*; as *creidim sur buail sé*, I believe that he struck.

(3.) *Munar*, unless, from *muna* and *ro*; as *munar buail sé*, unless he struck.

(4.) *Načar*, or *na'r*, or *nár*, whether not? from *nač* and *po*; as *nár buail ré*, did not he strike?

(5.) *níor*, not, from *níand ro*; as *níor buail sé*, he did not strike.*

6. The particle *ro*, as a sign of past tense, is also often combined with the relative pronoun *Δ*; as *Δn fear d'ar gceallas mo leabdar*, the man *to whom* I promised my book. For a further account of this, see Syntax.

Future Tense.

1. All the personal inflections of this tense, in both voices, begin with the letter *ř*, which, in the spoken language, is often sounded like *h*; thus *dúnrad*, I shall shut, is colloquially pronounced *doonhad* (instead of *doonfad*).

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

1. The particle *do*, causing aspiration, is often prefixed to verbs in the conditional mood; as *do síubdalfaínn*, I would walk.

2. But very often also *dá*, if, or *muna*, unless, is prefixed, and with these particles the initial is eclipsed; as *dá d-fadgaínn-pe mo roġa*, “if I would get my choice;” *muna m-beiréad sé*, “unless he would be.”

3. It is important to note that the personal inflections of this mood in both voices, as well as those of the future indicative, all begin with *ř*.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

1. The initial is aspirated in the infinitive, whether the particle *do* or *Δ* be expressed or under-

* See Second Irish Book by the Society for the Preservation of the Irish Language, p. 53.

stood. But in some cases the aspiration is prevented by other grammatical influences, as shown in next paragraph.

2. When the infinitive is preceded by one of the possessive pronouns, the initial of the verb falls under the influence of the pronoun.*

(1.) It is aspirated for Δ, his; mo, my; ʋo, thy (but here the influence of the pronoun is not perceived, as there would be aspiration without it); as ʋÁ žonΔʋ, to wound him (literally to his wounding, and so of the others); ʋo m'žonΔʋ, to wound me; ʋo ʋ'žonΔʋ, to wound thee.

(2.) It is preserved from aspiration by Δ, her; as ʋÁ žonΔʋ, to wound her.

(3.) It is eclipsed by the three plural possessives; as ʋÁR n-žonΔʋ, to wound us; ʋo ʋUR n-žonΔʋ to wound you; ʋÁ n-žonΔʋ, to wound them.

3. The general way of forming the infinitive is by adding Δʋ or eΔʋ, the first when the last vowel of the root is broad; the second when the vowel is slender.

4. If the final consonant of the root be preceded by ı as part of a diphthong or triphthong, the final vowel is made broad in the infinitive (which is usually, but not always, done by dropping the ı); as ʋuΔıł, ʋuΔıΔʋ; žoın, žonΔʋ, to wound. But if the final consonant be preceded by ı alone, the infinitive is formed according to the general rule in the last paragraph; as mıłł, mıł-leΔʋ, to destroy.

5. The infinitives of many verbs are formed irregularly, and these must be learned by prac-

* For the influence of the possessive pronouns, see pages 9, 11, 12; and see also Syntax.

tice. The following are a few of such verbs. Each group exhibits a particular type, in which the manner of forming the infinitive will be obvious on inspection.

Root or Imperative.	Infinitive.
ÉΔΣ.	ᵝ'ÉΔΣ, to die.
SNÁM̃.	ᵝO SNÁM̃, to swim.
ÓL.	ᵝ'ÓL, to drink
ṬARRAINΣ.	ᵝO ṬARRAINΣ, to draw.
CUIR.	ᵝO ĆUR, to put.
ΣOIL.	ᵝO ΣOL, to weep.
IMIR.	ᵝ'IMIRT, to play.
INΣIL.	ᵝ'INΣILT, to graze.
ᵝÍBIR.	ᵝO ᵝÍBIRT, to banish.
CEIL.	ᵝO ĆEILT, to conceal.
FÁS.	ᵝ'FÁSᵝÁIL, to leave.
ΣAB̃	ᵝO ΣAB̃ÁIL, to take.
ṬÓΣ.	ᵝO ṬOΣᵝÁIL, to lift.
LEAN.	ᵝO LEANAM̃AIN, to follow.
CAILL.	ᵝO ĆAILLEAM̃AIN, to lose.
OIL.	ᵝ'OILEAM̃AIN, to nourish.
FÓILL.	ᵝ'FÓILLEAM̃AIN, to suit.
ΣLUAIS.	ᵝO ΣLUASΔĆṬ, to move.
ÉIST.	ᵝ'ÉISTEΔĆṬ, to listen.

THE PARTICIPLE.

1. The active participle is merely the infinitive mood, with some such particle as ΔΣ prefixed; as ΔΣ ᵝUΔLΔᵝ at beating or a-beating.

2. The passive participle is generally formed by adding ṭe or ċe when the last vowel of the root is slender, and ṭΔ or ċΔ, when broad.

When the root ends in 6,&, I, It, n, nn, p, t, or g (except verbs in UΣ or IΣ), the ṭ of the participial termination retains its sound: after any other consonant, and also in verbs in UΣ or IΣ, the ṭ is aspirated. In the passive voice, the terminations ṭAR and ṭÍ follow the same law.

VII. VERBS IN **UIĠ**, &c.

1. Verbs of two or more syllables with the root ending in **UIĠ**, or **ĠĠ**, and some other dissyllabic verbs ending in **IL**, **IN**, **IR**, and **IS**, differ so decidedly from the model verb in the formation of some of their moods and tenses, that some writers,* not without reason, class them as a second conjugation.

2. The difference lies in the formation of the future and of the conditional in both voices; the other moods and tenses are formed like those of **BUAIL**.

3. In **BUAIL**, and all other verbs of its kind, the letter **f** is a characteristic mark of the future and of the conditional mood in both voices, as stated in Par. 3, p. 59.

4. The verbs now under consideration have no **p** in the future and conditional, but they take instead, **eó**, before the final consonant of the root.

5. In addition to this change, verbs in **UIĠ** and **ĠĠ** change **Ġ** into **ċ**; though in the spoken language of most parts of Ireland, the **Ġ** retains its place.

6. There is no other inflectional difference between these verbs and **BUAIL**, the personal terminations following the final consonant of the root being the same in all cases.

7. In the other tenses of the indicative, verbs in **IL**, **IN**, **IR** and **IS** are almost always syncopated by the elision of the vowel or diphthong preceding the final root consonant, as **COṽAIL**, sleep, **COṽLAIM**,

* As for instance the Rev. Canon Bourke in his "College Irish Grammar."

I sleep, &c. (But this change is not regarded as grammatical inflection.)

8. Verbs in **UIĞ** almost always form their infinitive by dropping the **ı** and adding the usual termination **Δϑ**; those in **İĞ** alone (not preceded by **u**), retain the **ı** and take **u** after it in the infinitive: as **COMΔRČUIĞ**, mark; infinitive, **COMΔRČUĞΔϑ**; **COMΔIRLIĞ**, advise; infinitive, **COMΔIRLIUĞΔϑ**.

9. Sometimes there are other slight changes, caused chiefly by the rule **CAOL le CAOL** &c, which will be obvious on inspection.

10. The following are a few examples of the formation of the present and future indicative, and of the conditional mood, in such verbs. The first person singular only is given in each case, as the other persons have the same terminations as **BUAIL** and **MEALL**.

Root or imper.	Pres. indic.	Future indic.	Conditional Mood.
ŲIRİĞ , direct.	ŲIRİĞIM.	ŲIREÓČΔϑ.	ŲIREÓČAINN.
ĞRÁŲUIĞ , love.	ĞRÁŲUIĞIM.	ĞRÁŲEÓČΔϑ.	ĞRÁŲEÓČAINN.
LABAIR , speak.	LABRAIM.	LABEÓČΔϑ.	LABEÓČAINN.
ČARRUIĞ , draw.	ČAIRNĞIM.	ČAIREÓNĞΔϑ.	ČAIREÓNĞAINN.
FOSČAIL , open.	FOSČLAIM.	FOSČEÓČΔϑ.	FOSČEÓČAINN.
COSAIN , defend.	COSNAIM.	COISEÓNΔϑ.	COISEÓNAINN.
INNIS , tell.	INNISIM.	INNEÓČΔϑ.	INNEÓČAINN.
ŲÍBIR , banish.	ŲÍBRIM.	ŲÍBEÓČΔϑ.	ŲÍBEÓČAINN.

11. In Munster, verbs in **İL**, **İN**, **İR**, and **IS**, are conjugated like those in **UIĞ** or **İĞ**; and the **eó** comes *after* the final consonant: thus **ŲÍBIR**, banish, is made in the future and conditional, **ŲÍBREÓČΔϑ** and **ŲÍBREÓČAINN**, as if the verb were **ŲÍBRIĞ**.

12. A table of the full conjugation of a verb in **UIĞ** (**ÁRŲUIĞ**) is given at page 65.

SYNTHETIC CONJUGATION OF *meall*, deceive.

		ACTIVE VOICE.		PASSIVE VOICE.	
		SINGULAR.	PLURAL	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Imperative Mood.	1. —		meall-amaois	Same form as the Present Indicative.	
	2. meall		meall-að		
	3. meall-að sé		meall-aðois		
Pres. Tense.	1. meall-aím		meall-amaoð	}	meall-ṭar
	2. meall-aír		meall-ṭaoi		
	3. meall-að sé		meall-að		
Consuet. Present.	1. meall-ann	{ mé ṭú sé	meall-ann	{ sin sið siað	Same form as the Present.
	2. }				
	3. }				
Simple Past.	1. meall-as		meall-amar	}	meall-að
	2. meall-aís		meall-aðar		
	3. meall-sé		meall-aðar		
Consuet. Past.	1. meall-aínn		meall-amaois	}	meall-ṭaoi
	2. meall-ṭú		meall-ṭaoi		
	3. meall-að sé		meall-aðois		
Future.	1. meall-fað			}	meall-far
	2. meall-fair				
	3. meall-fað sé				
Conditional Mood.	1. meall-faínn			}	meall-faðe
	2. meall-fa				
	3. meall-fað sé				
Infinitive Mood, oo meall-að.					Infinitive Mood, oo beic meall-ṭa.
Participle, að meall-að.					Participle, meall-ṭa.

SYNTHETIC CONJUGATION OF **ÁRUIŠ**, raise

	ACTIVE VOICE.		PASSIVE VOICE.	
	SINGULAR.	PLURAL	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Imperative Mood.	— 1. ÁRUIŠ 2. ÁRUIŠ-eaò sé 3. ÁRUIŠ-ois	ÁRUIŠ-mis ÁRUIŠ-íò ÁRUIŠ-ois	Same form as the Present Indicative.	
Pres. Tense.	1. ÁRUIŠ-im 2. ÁRUIŠ-ir 3. ÁRUIŠ-iò sé	ÁRUIŠ-míò ÁRUIŠ-čí ÁRUIŠ-iò	ÁRUIŠ-čear { mé { čú { sé }	ÁRUIŠ-čear { sinn, inn { siò, iò { iaò }
Consuet. Present.	1. ÁRUIŠ-eann { 2. ÁRUIŠ-í { 3. ÁRUIŠ-sé }	ÁRUIŠ-eann { sinn { siò { siaò }	Same form as the Present.	
Simple Past.	1. ÁRUIŠ-eaR 2. ÁRUIŠ-is 3. ÁRUIŠ sé	ÁRUIŠ-eamar ÁRUIŠ-eabar ÁRUIŠ-eaRar	ÁRUIŠ-eaò { mé { čú { sé }	ÁRUIŠ-eaò { sinn, inn { siò, iò { iaò }
Consuet. Past.	1. ÁRUIŠ-inn 2. ÁRUIŠ-čea 3. ÁRUIŠ-eaò sé	ÁRUIŠ-mis ÁRUIŠ-čí ÁRUIŠ-ois	ÁRUIŠ-čí { mé { čú { sé }	ÁRUIŠ-čí { sinn, inn { siò, iò { iaò }
Future.	1. ÁIRDEÓC-aò 2. ÁIRDEÓC-air 3. ÁIRDEÓC-airò sé	ÁIRDEÓC-amaioò ÁIRDEÓC-čaoiò ÁIRDEÓC-airò	ÁIRDEÓC-aR { mé { čú { sé }	ÁIRDEÓC-aR { sinn, inn { siò, iò { iaò }
Conditional Mood.	1. ÁIRDEÓC-ainn 2. ÁIRDEÓC-čá 3. ÁIRDEÓC-aò sé	ÁIRDEÓC-amaois ÁIRDEÓC-čaoiò ÁIRDEÓC-airois	ÁIRDEÓC-airòe { mé { čú { sé }	ÁIRDEÓC-airòe { sinn, inn { siò, iò { iaò }
Infinitive Mood, ò ároušaò .				
Participle, aš ároušaò .				
Infinitive Mood, oo beič ároušče .				
Participle, ároušče .				

Indicative Mood.

VIII. IRREGULAR VERBS.

1. There are fourteen irregular verbs, several of which are defective, i.e., want one or more of the moods and tenses. The conjugation of some of them, it will be observed, is made up of that of two or more different verbs.

2. It will also be observed that through all their irregularities, the five synthetic personal terminations remain unchanged; for which reason it is scarcely correct to call these verbs irregular at all.

3. The irregular verbs are as follows :—(1), τάιμ, I am; (2), the assertive verb ις; (3), βειριμ, I give; (4), βειριμ, I bear; (5), čim, I see (including ꝑeicim); (6), cluinim, I hear; (7), ḡéan-aim, I do; (8), źním or níim, I do; (9), ḡeiriim, I say; (10), ꝑaźaim or źeibim, I find; (11), ičim, I eat; (12), riźim, I reach; (13), τείριμ, I go; (14), τiźim, I come.

4. The following is the synthetic conjugation of the irregular verbs (except in the case of the second verb ις, which has no synthetic conjugation). They may be all conjugated analytically, by using the third person singular of each tense with the three personal pronouns singular and plural, as shown in case of the regular verb at page 49. As an example, the analytic conjugation of the present tense of the first verb, τάιμ, is given.

(1.) τάιμ, *I am.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1.	1. bímís, let us be.
2. bí, be thou.	2. bírió, be ye.
3. briéaò sé, or bíoò sé, let him be	3. bíriís, let them be.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. τάιμ, ατάιμ, I am.
2. τάιρ, ατάιρ, thou art.
3. τά sé, ατά sé, he is.

Plural.

1. τάμαοιρ, ατάμαοιρ, we are.
2. τάτσοι, ατάτσοι, ye are.
3. τάιρ, ατάιρ, they are.

Present Tense: analytic conjugation.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. τά μέ, αcd μέ, I am: | 1. τά sinn, ατά sinn, we are. |
| 2. τά tú, αcd tú, thou art. | 2. τά síb, ατά síb, ye are. |
| 3. τά sé, ατά sé, he is. | 3. τά síad, ατά síad, they are. |

Consuetudinal Present.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. bíom, I am usually. | 1. bímíρ, bíomíρ, bíomaοιρ, we are usually. |
| 2. bízιρ, thou art usually. | 2. bíčí, bíočí, ye are usually. |
| 3. bíoeann sé, or bíonn sé, is usually. | 3. bíρ, bíορ, they are usually. |

Interrogative and Negative Present.

(The negative particle is here used: see Par. 3, p. 69.)

- | | |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. ní ò-fuilm, I am not.* | 1. ní ò-fuilmíρ, we are not. |
| 2. ní ò-fuilir, thou art not. | 2. ní ò-fuilčí, ye are not. |
| 3. ní ò-fuil sé, he is not. | 3. ní ò-fuilir, they are not. |

* These are commonly pronounced in conversation as if the ò-fui were omitted in each case; and accordingly they are often contracted in books to ní'lm, ní'lr, ní' sé, &c.

Past Tense.

Singular. Plural.

- | | |
|----------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. ὄνεις, ὄς, I was. | 1. ὄνειαμαρ, ὄιομαρ, we were. |
| 2. ὄνεις, ὄς, thou wert. | 2. ὄνειαῶαρ, ὄιοῶαρ, ye were. |
| 3. ὄνι σε, ὄνι σε, he was. | 3. ὄνειαῶαρ, ὄιοῶαρ, they were. |

Consuetudinal Past.

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. ὄνιν, ὄνιν, I used to be. | 1. ὄνις, ὄνις, we used to be. |
| 2. ὄνεις, ὄνεις, thou usedst to be. | 2. ὄνις, ὄνις, ye used to be. |
| 3. ὄνεις σε, ὄνεις σε, he used to be. | 3. ὄνις, ὄνις, they used to be. |

Interrogative and Negative Past.

(The negative particle is here used: see Par. 3, p. 69).

- | | |
|----------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. ὄνις, ὄνις, I was not. | 1. ὄνις, ὄνις, we were not. |
| 2. ὄνις, ὄνις, thou wert not. | 2. ὄνις, ὄνις, ye were not. |
| 3. ὄνις σε, ὄνις σε, he was not. | 3. ὄνις, ὄνις, they were not. |

Future.

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. ὄνεις, ὄνεις, I shall be. | 1. ὄνις, ὄνις, we shall be. |
| 2. ὄνεις, ὄνεις, thou shalt be. | 2. ὄνις, ὄνις, ye shall be. |
| 3. ὄνις σε, ὄνις σε, he shall be. | 3. ὄνις, ὄνις, they shall be. |

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

- | | |
|--|-----------------------------------|
| 1. <i>beròinn</i> , I would be. | 1. <i>beròmís</i> , we would be. |
| 2. <i>beròceá</i> , thou wouldst be. | 2. <i>beròcí</i> , ye would be. |
| 3. <i>beròeΔò sé</i> , or <i>berì sé</i> ,
he would be. | 3. <i>beròís</i> , they would be. |

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Do berìč, to be.

PARTICIPLE.

Δζ berìč, being.

1. *Tá* is commonly called the substantive verb, and answers to the verb "to be" in English.

2. It has two forms, which the regular verb has not, namely, a form in the present tense for interrogation and negation (*b-fuilim*), and a form in the past tense for the same (*raibás*). These two are classed by O'Donovan as a subjunctive mood, present and past tense.

3. The forms *b-fuilim* and *raibás* are used only:—

(a.) After negative and interrogative particles; as *ní b-fuil sé tinn*, he is not sick; *ní raib mé ann sin*, I was not there: *an b-fuil fíon in bar longab?* "Is there wine in your ships?" *An raibais Δζ an ζ-carraiz?* "Wert thou at the rock" (or at Carrick)? *O nac b-fuil dul uaid Δζam*, "since I cannot escape from him" (lit. "since it is not with me to go from him"); *an b-fuil a fíos Δζat fein, a fhinn? ní fuil, ar fíonn*, " 'Is the knowledge of it with thyself, O Finn?' 'It is not,' says Finn."

(But these forms are not used after the interrogative *cionnas*, how?)

(b.) After *go*, that; as *deirim go b-fuil sé slán*, I say that he is well.

(c.) After the relative *Δ* when it follows a preposition, or when it signifies “all that” (Par. 3, page 47); as *creud é an freazra tabarfair ar dhia, as Δ b-fuil fios do locht?* “What answer wilt thou give to God, who has a knowledge of thy sins?” (lit. “*with whom* is a knowledge”); *Δ b-fuil ó Ath-cliač go h-Oileán mór an bharrais,* “*all that* is from Ath-cliath (Dublin) to Oileán mór an Bharraigh;” *do beirmí ar m-briačar nač beas linn Δ m-beuram go fionn dioð*, “we pledge our word, that we do not think it little, *all that* we shall bring of them to Finn.”

4. This verb, like verbs in general, has a relative form for the present and future; but the relative form of the present is always a consuetudinal tense (whereas in regular verbs it is generally not consuetudinal); as *mar an g-céadna bíos* (or *bíðeas*) *an bás an oisill do síor ar an duine*; “in like manner death is (in the habit of) lying in wait always for man.”

5. The analytic form of this verb is now far more common in the spoken language than the synthetic. In asking a question the analytic form is often preferred: but in answering, the synthetic; as *an saib tú as an g-Carrais?* *Do bíos as an g-Carrais*, “Were you at Carrick? I was at Carrick.”

6. The letter *Δ* is often prefixed to the present tense both in speaking and writing : *Δτá* instead of *τá*, &c.; it is sometimes slightly emphatic, but oftener merely euphonic, and does not otherwise affect the meaning.

7. This verb is often used as an auxiliary, like the verb “to be” in English; and it is the only verb in the Irish language that can be regarded

as an auxiliary. Thus, instead of *buaileadar mé*, I am struck, we can say *τὰ μέ buailte*: for *do buaileadh mé*, I was struck, *do bí mé buailte*, &c.

(2.) *Is, it is.*

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense,

Is, it is: as *is mé*, it is I; *is tú*, it is thou.

Past Tense,

bh or *buò*, it was; as *bh mé*, it was I.

Future Tense.

buò or *bús*, it will be.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

bh, it would be.

1. This is commonly called the assertive verb.
2. It has no inflection for person, being always used in the third person singular: hence it is often called the impersonal verb.
3. It has no other moods and tenses besides those given above.
4. It takes other forms in the modern language, some of them contracted, which are often puzzling to learners.
5. After *sur*, that, it is often made *ab*, which is given by O'Donovan as a subjunctive mood; as *creidim sur ab é atá tinn*, I believe that it is he (who) is sick: *measaim bá réir sin, sur ab dá bliagáin agus fíce sul rugadh Abraham tánic parçolón i n-eirinn*, "I think, according to that,

that it is two years and twenty before Abraham was born, that Partholon came to Erin."

6. Very often $\zeta\text{UR } \Delta\text{b}$ is shortened by omitting the Δ ; as $\text{cpeibim } \zeta\text{UR } 'b\acute{e}$, &c.; and sometimes the b is joined to ζUR , as $\text{CREIDIM } \zeta\text{URb } \acute{e}$, &c

7. After $m\acute{a}$, if, the i is omitted, as $m\acute{a}'s$ $f\acute{i}or \acute{e}$, if it be true; and in this case the s is often joined to the $m\acute{a}$; as $m\acute{a}s$ $f\acute{i}or \acute{e}$: $m\acute{a}s$ $mai\tau$ $leat \Delta$ $\breve{e}i\tau$ $bu\Delta n$, $cai\tau$ fuar $\Delta\zeta us$ $\tau e\tau$, "if you wish to be long-lived, drink cold and hot" (or "drink cold and flee"—a celebrated Irish saying of double meaning).

8. Sometimes $\text{b}\Delta$ or $\breve{\text{b}}\Delta$ is shortened to b or $\breve{\text{b}}$ alone, which again is often joined to the preceding word; as $\text{laoc } \breve{\text{b}}'\acute{a}r \breve{\text{b}}'\Delta inm \text{ l}\acute{i}r$, or $\text{laoc } \breve{\text{b}}\Delta r\breve{\text{b}} \Delta inm \text{ l}\acute{i}r$, "a hero whose name was Lir;" of which the full construction is, $\text{laoc } \breve{\text{b}}\Delta \text{ ro } \breve{\text{b}}\Delta \Delta inm \text{ l}\acute{i}r$, "a hero to whom was name Lir."

9. There is another form, $\text{f}\acute{a}$, for the past tense, which is now disused, but which is constantly used by Keating, and by other writers of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries: $\text{f}\acute{a} \tau r\acute{e}\Delta n\text{f}\acute{e}\Delta r \Delta n$ Ceat so , "this Ceat was a mighty man;" $\text{is } \acute{i}$ ($\breve{\text{b}}\Delta n\text{b}\Delta$) $\text{f}\Delta$ $\text{bean } \breve{\text{b}}\Delta \text{ m}\Delta\text{hac Coill}$, $\breve{\text{b}}'\Delta r \breve{\text{b}}'\Delta inm \breve{\text{v}}\acute{i}lios$ $\text{e}\Delta\tau\acute{u}r$, "it is she (Banba) who was wife to Mac Coll, whose proper name was Eathur;" $\acute{o}s \acute{e}$ Δn $\text{scot}\breve{\text{b}}\acute{e}\Delta r\Delta \text{ f}\acute{a} \tau e\Delta n\zeta\Delta \text{ coit}\breve{\text{c}}\Delta n\text{ san Scit}\Delta$ Δn $\tau r\acute{a}\tau$ $\breve{\text{b}}\Delta \breve{\text{c}}r\Delta ll$ $\text{neime}\Delta\breve{\text{b}} \Delta ir\breve{\text{e}}$, "since it is the Scotic language which was the common tongue in Scythia in the time that Neimheadh emigrated from it."*

10. Eor the distinction between $\tau\acute{a}$ and is , see Idioms.

*For the various forms assumed by this verb in the ancient language, see O'Donovan's most instructive article in his "Irish Grammar," p. 161.

(3.) Bheirim, *I give.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural
1. . . .	1. taḃramaois.
2. taḃair.	2. taḃraiḃ.
3. taḃraḃ sé.	3. taḃradaois.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

First Person Singular.

<i>Present:</i>	ḃeirim, taḃraim, or tugaim.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers
<i>Consuet. Pres.:</i>	ḃeireann.	
<i>Past:</i>	ḃugar.	
<i>Consuet. Past:</i>	ḃeirinn, ḃugainn.	
<i>Future:</i>	ḃéarfad, taḃarfad.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	ḃéarfainn, taḃarfainn.	

INFINITIVE; do ḃaḃairt. PARTICIPLE; ag taḃairt.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE; beirḃear, táḃarḃear, tugḃear, mé, tú, é, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present:</i>	ḃeirḃear, tugḃear.	} Mé, tú, é, &c.
<i>Past:</i>	tugaḃ.	
<i>Consuet. Past:</i>	ḃéirḃiḃe, ḃugḃaiḃe.	
<i>Future:</i>	béarfár, taḃarfár.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	ḃéarfaiḃe, taḃarfaiḃe.	

INFINITIVE; do ḃeiḃ taḃarḃa, do ḃeiḃ cugaḃ.
PARTICIPLE; taḃarḃa, cugaḃ.

1. This verb is made up of three different verbs: in some of the tenses any one of the three may be employed; in some, either of two; and in some only one; as shown in the paradigm.

2. In the present tense, *beirim* (but not the other two verbs) takes the particle *do* (which is a mark of the past in regular verbs), and commonly has its initial aspirated

—————
(4.) *Beirim, I bear,*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular. Plural.

1. . . .	1. <i>beirimís.</i>
2. <i>beir.</i>	2. <i>beiríð.</i>
3. <i>beireað sé.</i>	3. <i>beiridís.</i>

INDICATIVE MOOD

First Person Singular.

<i>Present:</i>	<i>beirim.</i>
<i>Consuet. Present:</i>	<i>beireann.</i>
<i>Past:</i>	<i>rugas.</i>
<i>Consuet. Past:</i>	<i>béirinn.</i>
<i>Future:</i>	<i>béarfad.</i>

CONDITIONAL
MOOD: *beárfainn.*

} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.

INFINITIVE; *do beir̃eiz̃.* PARTICIPLE *ag breĩz̃.*

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD; *beir̃tear mé, tú, é, &c.*

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present:	beir ^ē ear.	}	Me, ^ē tú, é, &c.
Past:	ruga ^ò .		
Consuet. Past:	^ò beir ^ē í.		
Future:	béarf ^{ar} .		
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	^ò béarfai ^ò e.	}	

INFINITIVE; do ^òbeir^ē beir^ēe. PARTICIPLE; beir^ēe.

(5.) ^ēCím, / see.

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. feicimís, feicimíd.
2. feic.	2. feicí ^ò .
3. feicea ^ò sé.	3. feicidís.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. ^ē cí ^ò im, ^ē cím, feicim.	1. ^ē cí ^ò míd, ^ē címíd, feicimíd
2. ^ē cí ^ò ir, ^ē cír, feicir.	2. ^ē cí ^ò ^ē í, ^ē cí ^ē í, feic ^ē í.
3. ^ē cí ^ò ^ò sé, ^ē cí ^ò sé, feicí ^ò sé.	3. ^ē cí ^ò id, ^ē cíd, feicid.

Consuet. Pres.; ^ēcí^òeann, feiceann, mé, tú, sé, &c.

Past.

1. ^ē connarcas.	1. ^ē concamar.
2. ^ē connarcais.	2. ^ē conca ^ò ar.
3. ^ē connairc sé.	3. ^ē concabar.

First Person Singular.

Consuet. Past:	^ē cí ^ò inn or ^ē cín.	}	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
Future:	^ē cí ^ò fead or ^ē cífead.		
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	^ē cí ^ò finn, or ^ē cífinn, or ^ē feicfinn.	}	

INFINITIVE MOOD; d'feicsin or d'feicsint.

PARTICIPLE; ag feicsin or ag feicsint.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD; feic̃tear, mé, tú, é, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense:	cí̃cear or feic̃tear.	} Mé, tú, é, &c.
Past:	connarcã.	
Past. Consuet.:	cí̃c̃cí or feic̃cí.	
Future:	cí̃fear or feic̃fear.	
Conditional Mood:	cí̃fí̃e or feic̃fí̃e.	

INFINITIVE MOOD; do beic̃ feic̃te. PARTICIPLE; feic̃te

1. Cí̃im is defective in some of its moods and tenses, which are supplied by other verbs—the imperative and infinitive by feicim or faicim, and the past indicative of both voices by an old verb—otherwise disused—connarcaim.

2. Feicim or faicim, although it is brought in among the irregular verbs to supply the defects of cí̃im, is itself regular.

3. Observe that the initial of cí̃im is *always* aspirated.

—————

(6.) Cluinim. *I hear.*

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Past Tense.

1. cualas.	1. cualamar.
2. cualais.	2. cualãar.
3. cualaí̃ sé.	3. cualadar.

INFINITIVE MOOD ACTIVE; do clos or do cloistin.

PARTICIPLE ACTIVE ; ag clos or ag cloistin.

1. In all the other moods and tenses, cluinim is regular, and is conjugated like buail.

(7.) Déanaim, *I do.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

- | | |
|---------------|---------------------------------------|
| 1. . . . | 1. déanam, déanamaois,
déanamaoid. |
| 2. déan. | 2. déanaið. |
| 3. déanað sé. | 3. déanaidís. |

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Past Tense.

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| 1. riġneas, ðeárnas, ðéa-
nas. | 1. riġneamar, ðeárnamar,
ðéanamar. |
| 2. riġnis, ðeárnais, ðéa-
nais. | 2. riġneaðar, ðeárnaðar,
ðéanaðar. |
| 3. riġne sé, ðeárnað sé,
déan sé. | 3. riġneadar, ðeárnadar,
ðéanadar. |

First Person Singular.

- | | | |
|------------------------|------------------------------------|--|
| <i>Present:</i> | déanaim. | } With the
usual termina-
tions for the
other persons
and numbers. |
| <i>Consuet. Pres.:</i> | déanann. | |
| <i>Consuet. Past:</i> | ġníðinn, ðearnainn, ðéa-
nainn. | |
| <i>Future:</i> | déanfad. | |
| CONDITIONAL
MOOD: | ðéanfainn. | |

INFINITIVE MOOD; do ðéanam or do ðéanað.

PARTICIPLE; ag déanam or ag déanað.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD; Déantar mé, ċú, é, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

- | | | |
|-----------------------|-------------------|------------------|
| <i>Present:</i> | déantar. | } Mé, ċú, é, &c. |
| <i>Past:</i> | riġneað, deárnað. | |
| <i>Consuet. Past:</i> | ġníċí. | |
| <i>Future:</i> | déanfar. | |
| CONDITIONAL
MOOD: | ðéanfaioe. | |

INFINITIVE MOOD; do ðeiċ déanta. PARTICIPLE; déanta.

1. This verb and the next borrow from each other to form some of the moods and tenses in which they are defective.

(8.) Gním or ním, *I do.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

First Person Singular.

<i>Present:</i>	gním or ním.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Past:</i>	ḡníðeas or níðeas.	
<i>Consuet. Past:</i>	ḡníðinn or níðinn.	

PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present:</i>	gníðear or níðear.	} Mé, tú, é, &c.
<i>Consuet. Past:</i>	ḡníðí or níðí.	

1. This verb is used in no other moods or tenses; but so far as it goes it is very common in both forms—with and without the *g* (gním and ním). The other moods and tenses are expressed by means of béanaim.

—————

(9.) Deirim, *I say.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. abram, abramaois. abramaid.
2. abair.	2. abraið.
3. abrað sé.	3. abrabaois.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. deirim.	1. deirimíd.
2. deirir.	2. deirðið.
3. deir sé.	3. deirid.

Consuet. Pres. beireann mé, tú, sé, &c.

Past.

1. duōras.	1. duōramar.
2. duōrais.	2. duōraōar.
3. duōairt sé.	3. duōradar.

First Person Singular.

<i>Consuet. Past:</i>	beirinn.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Future:</i>	béarfad.	
<i>Conditional Mood:</i>	béarfainn.	

INFINITIVE MOOD; do ráō. PARTICIPLE; ag ráō.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD; abarčar mé, tú, é, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present:</i>	deirčear.	} Mé, čú, é, &c.
<i>Past:</i>	duōraō.	
<i>Consuet Past:</i>	deirčí.	
<i>Future:</i>	déarfár.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	déarfaiōe.	

INFINITIVE MOOD; do ōeīč ráiōte, do ōeīč ráite.

PARTICIPLE; ráiōte, ráite.

1. The verb *abraim*, I say, from which *deipim* borrows its imperative, is itself a regular verb.

2. Observe the characteristics of *duōras*, the past indicative active:— (a) it does not take the participle *do* or *ro*; (b) the initial is not aspirated.

3. The letter *a* is often prefixed to this verb for the sake of emphasis; as *a deirim* for *deirim*, I say; *a duōairt sé* for *duōairt sé*, he said.

(10.) Fagaim or ʒeibim, *I find.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

1. . . .
2. faʒ.
3. faʒaɔ sé.

Plural.

1. faʒmaois, faʒmaoid.
2. faʒaiɔ.
3. faʒaidís.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. faʒaim or ʒeibim. | 1. faʒmaoid or ʒeibmíd. |
| 2. faʒair or ʒeibip. | 2. faʒtaíɔ or ʒeibɕíɔ. |
| 3. faʒaíɔ sé, or ʒeib sé. | 3. faʒaid or ʒeibid. |

Past.

- | | |
|--------------|--------------|
| 1. fuarás. | 1. fuaramar. |
| 2. fuarais. | 2. fuaraɔar. |
| 3. fuair sé. | 3. fuaradar. |

First Person Singular.

<i>Consuet. Past:</i>	faʒainn or ʒeibinn.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Future:</i>	ʒéaɔad, ʒeoɔad.	
<i>Future neg. & interrog.</i>	ʒeaɔad or ɔfuiʒead.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	ʒéaɔainn, ʒeoɔainn, or ɔ-faʒainn, ɔ-fuiʒinn.	

INFINITIVE; d'fáʒail. PARTICIPLE; ag fáʒail.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD; faʒɕar mé, ɕú, é, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present:</i>	faʒɕar.	} Mé, ɕú, é, &c.
<i>Past:</i>	fuaɔaɔ or friɕ.	
<i>Consuet. Past:</i>	ʒeibɕí.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	ʒeaɔɕaiɔe, ɔ-fuiʒɕiɔe.	

(Defective in Infinitive and Participle.)

1. The second form of this verb (*ḡeivim*) has its initial aspirated in the present and future active.

2. The past tense (*fuaras*, &c.) may or may not take the particle *do* or *ro*; but its initial consonant is not aspirated.

(11.) *l̥im*, *I eat*.

ACTIVE VOICE.

First Person Singular.

Future Indicative: *iorfad*.

CONDITIONAL
MOOD: *iorfainn*.

} with the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.

1. The past indicative is either the regular form *d'í̇ceas*, &c, or the irregular *duar* (with the usual terminations:—*buais*, *buai̇ sé*, &c.)

2. The infinitive is *d'í̇ce*.

3. In other respects this verb is regular.

(12.) *Riḡim*, *I reach*.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. <i>riḡmís</i> .
2. <i>riḡ</i> .	2. <i>riḡí̇</i> .
3. <i>riḡeȧ sé</i> .	3. <i>riḡidís</i> .

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. <i>riḡim</i>	1. <i>riḡmíd</i> .
2. <i>riḡir</i>	2. <i>riḡcí</i> .
3. <i>riḡ sé</i> .	3. <i>riḡid</i> .

Past.

- | | |
|---------------------------|--------------|
| 1. RÁNȚAS. | 1. RÁNȚAMAR. |
| 2. RÁNȚAIS. | 2. RÁNȚABĀR. |
| 3. RÁINIȚ SÉ, RÁNȚAIS SÉ. | 3. RÁNȚADĀR. |

First Person Singular.

Consuet. Past:	RĪȚINN.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
Future:	RĪȚFEAD.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	RĪȚFINN.	

INFINITIVE; DO RĪĀȚAIN OR ROȚAIN.

1. The past, future, and conditional, are sometimes expressed by a different verb, as follows:— but this form (which is the same form as the infinitive), is not often met with in the modern language.

First Person Singular.

<i>Past:</i>	RĪĀȚAS.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Future:</i>	RĪĀȚFAĀ.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	RĪĀȚFAINN.	

(13.) TĒRĀIM, *I go.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. TĒRĀMĪR.
2. TĒRĀ.	2. TĒRĀRĀ.
3. TĒRĀEĀ SÉ.	3. TĒRĀRĀIS.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. TĒRĀIM.	1. TĒRĀMĪR.
2. TĒRĀIR.	2. TĒRĀĀRĀ or TĒRĀRĀ
3. TĒRĀ SÉ.	3. TĒRĀRĀ.

Past Tense.

1. CUAÐAS.

1. CUAÐMAR.

2. CUAÐAIS.

2. CUAÐÐAR.

3. CUAÐ sé.

3. CUAÐÐAR.

There is another form of the past tense of this verb used after the particles *ζο*, *ní*, &c., which O'Donovan classes as a subjunctive mood. The negative *ní*, which aspirates, is here prefixed: after *ζο*, the initial would be eclipsed.

1. ní ðeacás.

1. ní ðeacamar.

2. ní ðeacais.

2. ní ðeacaðar.

3. ní ðeacaið sé.

3. ní ðeacaðar.

First Person Singular.

Consuet. Past:

čérönn.

Future:

RACFAÐ or RACÐ.

CONDITIONAL

RACFAINN or RACAINN.

MOOD:

} With the
usual termina-
tions for the
other persons
and numbers.

INFINITIVE; *ðo* ðul. PARTICIPLE; *as* ðul.

(14.) *Ṫiṡim*, *I come*.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

1. . . .

1. Ṫiṡimís or Ṫiṡeam.

2. ṪAR or ṪIṢ.

2. ṪIṢ.

3. ṪIṢEÐ sé.

3. ṪIṢÓIS.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. Ṫiṡim.

1. Ṫiṡimí.

2. ṪIṢIR.

2. ṪIṢÍ, ṪIṢÍ.

3. ṪIṢ sé.

3. ṪIṢ.

Past Tense.

1. <i>čÁŋſas.</i>	1. <i>čÁŋſamar.</i>
2. <i>čÁŋſair.</i>	2. <i>čÁŋſab̃ar.</i>
3. <i>čÁiníc sé.</i>	3. <i>čÁŋſab̃ar.</i>

First Person Singular

<i>Consuet. Past:</i>	<i>čiginn.</i>	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Future:</i>	<i>čiocfab̃.</i>	
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	<i>čiocfainn</i>	

INFINITIVE; *do čeac̃t.* PARTICIPLE; *as̃ teac̃t.*

OTHER DEFECTIVE VERBS.

1. The following defective verbs are often met with in the modern language.

AIR or *AR*, “says.” It is used only in the third person, much like the English defective verb *quoth*; as, *AIR sé*, says he: *creub̃ dõ óéunfair̃ bam̃? ap̃ óiarmaid̃*: “ ‘What wilt thou do for me?’ says Diarmaid;” *óéan eólus̃ dúinñ mar̃ ã b̃-fuil sé, ar̃ siab̃*, “ ‘give knowledge to us where he is,’ said they (or say they).” In the older writings this verb is often written *ol̃*.

Ac̃ b̃ac̃, he (or she) died.

ÓAR, it seems, it seemed, or it might seem (according to the tense or mood of the verb with which it is connected). *ÓAR liom̃*, methinks or methought; *ÓAR leac̃* it seems or seemed to thee; and so on with the rest of these prepositional pronouns singular and plural: *Óo rič̃ sé, ÓAR liom̃, mar̃ añ ġaoič̃*, he ran, methought (or it seemed to me) like the wind.

Óliġčear̃, it is lawful, it is allowed.

Dus, to know; *éainic sé dus an raið siad ann*, he came (in order) to know whether they were there.

Feadar, I know; used only negatively and interrogatively, and in the present tense: *ní fheadar mé*, I do not know; *ní fheadar sé*, he does not know; *an ð-feadraðar?* do ye know?

Ní fuláir, it is necessary (or "must," used impersonally); *ní fuláir ðam a ðeið air siuðal*, "it is necessary for me to be (or I must be) walking (away)."

CHAPTER VI.

ADVERBS, PREPOSITIONS, CONJUNCTIONS, INTERJECTIONS.

I. ADVERBS.

1. There are not many simple adverbs in the Irish language. Far the greatest number of the Irish adverbs are compounds of two or more words.

2. An adverb may be formed from an adjective by prefixing the particle *go*, which in this application has the same effect as the English postfix *ly*; as *borb*, fierce; *go borb*, fiercely. Almost all Irish adjectives admit of being changed in this manner to adverbs.

3. Besides the adverbs formed in this way, there are many compound adverbs, which are generally made up of a noun and a preposition; the preposition often causing an eclipsis.

4. The following is an alphabetical list of the compound adverbs in most general use, with a few of the simple adverbs. Some of the compound adverbs become, in some situations, prepositions:—

A ð-fad, far off, in space or time.

Aðus, on this side. (See *ðall*.)

A d-tosad, at first, in the beginning.

A d-tuaið, northwards.

A g-céadóir, immediately.

Δ ζ-*céin*, far off.

Δ ζ-*comnuòe*, always.

Δ ζ *sin*, there.

Δ ζ *so*, here.

Δ ζ *súo*, yonder.

Δ *ais*, back, backward. —
(See Δ *éigin*.)

Δ *ball*, on the spot, in
stantly.

Δ *bič*, at all.

Δ *bun*, on foundation:
Δ *cur air bun*, to found,
to institute.

Δ *ceana*, in like manner;
in general.

Δ *coròce*, for ever.

Δ *éigin*, with difficulty;
perforce:—Δ *ais no air*
éigin, by consent or by
force: *nolens volens; willy*
nilly.

Δ *ζ-cúl*, backwards, back:
Δ *cur air ζ-cúl*—the op-
posite to Δ *cur air bun*—to
put back, to abolish.

Δ *leič*, apart, separately.

Δ *mòò*, in a manner; so
that.

Δ *son*, for the sake of.

Δ *uairib*, at times; some-
times.

Δ *mač*, out of, outside.

Δ *maín*, alone, only.

Δ *maráč*, to-morrow.

Δ *muig*, outside.

Δ *muil*, like, as.

Δ *áiròe*, on high.

Δ *ne*, yesterday.

Δ *níos*, from below, upwards.

Δ *einfeacč*, together.

Δ *sin*, there.

Δ *so*, here;

Δ *súo*, yonder.

Δ *n-deas*, southward.

Δ *naice*, near.

Δ *naill*, to this side; hither.

Δ *ngar*, near.

Δ *niu*, to-day.

Δ *nois*, now.

Δ *nonn*, to that side; thither.

Δ *tan*, when.

Δ *nuas*, from above, down-
wards.

Δ *réir*, last night.

Δ *riam*, ever.

Δ *ris*, again.

Δ *steacč*, in, into.

Δ *sticš*, in, inside.

Δ *beaz nač*, little but; almost.

Δ *há-as*, Δ *caò as*, Δ *canas*,
from what? whence?

Δ *méro*, how many? how
much?

Δ *caic*, Δ *h-áic*, Δ *cia áic*,
what place?

Δ *òe bris*, because.

Δ *òo síor*, always.

Δ *eaòon*, that is; *i.e.*; *id est*.

Δ *fá*, gives an adverbial mean-
ing to some words.

Δ *fá céaòóir*, immediately.

Δ *fá òeoiš*, at last.

Δ *fá òó*, twice.

Δ *fá šeacč*, by turns; respec-
tively.

Δ *fá črí*, thrice.

Δ *òo bráč*, for ever (lit. to
[the] judgment).

Δ *òeimin*, verily; truly;
indeed.

Δ *òo čí*, unto.

Δ *òo fóil*, yet; awhile.

Δ *òo h-iomlán*, altogether.

Δ *òo léir*, entirely.

Δ *òo leór*, enough.

Δ *lomorro*, however, more-
over, indeed.

Δ *maile se*, together with.

Δ *mar an ζ-céaòna*, likewise;
in like manner.

MAIR **Δon** **le**, together with.
no **ζo**, until.
O **soin** **Δle**, from that time out.
Os **cionn**, above.
Síos, downwards.
SOIR, eastwards.

SUAS, upwards.
Thall, on the other side; beyond. (See **Δbus**.)
Ṭamall, awhile.
Ṭuille eile, besides; moreover.

II. PREPOSITIONS.

1. The following is a list of the simple prepositions:—

Δ or **l**, in; as **Δ mbaile**, in the town.
Δ, out of, or from (unusual); as **Δ Mumain**, out of Munster.
Δς or **Δς**, at, with.
ΔIR, **ΔR**, upon.
Ann, in. This takes **s** before the article. (See page 17.)
ΔR, out of.
Chum, to or towards, for the purpose of.
ṬAR, used in swearing, equivalent to by: **ṬAR mo ṬRIA-ṬAR**, “by my word.”
Ṭo, to. **Ṭe**, from, off, of.
EΔṬAR, the same as **lbip**.
ṬÁ or **ṬAOI**, under.
Ṭan, without.
Ṭo, towards, along with. It takes **s** before the article an; as **Ṭus Δn Ṭ-ṬIS**, to the house.

l, the same as **Δ**.
lAR, after. It takes **s** before the article (**Δn**), and becomes **lARS**.
lOR, between.
Im, the same as **um**.
le or **re**, with. It takes **s** before the article (**Δn**), and then becomes **leis** or **ris**.
MAIR, like, as.
O, from.
Os, over, above.
Re, **RIA**, before. It takes **s** before the article (**Δn**).
Seac, beyond, besides.
ṬAR, over, across. It takes **s** before the article (**Δn**), and then becomes **ṬARS**.
ṬRé, through. It takes **s** before the article, and then becomes **ṬRÉS**.
ṬRÍṬ, the same as **ṬRé**.
Um or **im**, about.

2. Some of the simple prepositions are amalgamated with the personal and possessive pronouns, for which see pages 41, 45.

3. Besides the simple prepositions, there are in Irish a number of compound prepositions. Each of these consists of a simple preposition followed by a noun; and in many of them the initial of the noun is eclipsed by the influence of the simple

preposition. In some cases the preposition has dropped out and only the noun remains.

4. The following is a list of the most usual compound prepositions, with their meanings:—

Δ ὀ-φιαῖσιν, in presence of.

Δ ὀ-φοῖσιν, with, along with.

Δ ὀ-ταῖσιν, in regard to, concerning.

Δ ὀ-τιμῶσιν: see τιμῶσιν,

Δ ὀ-κεῖν, at the head of, at the end of, with regard to.

Δ ὀ-κοῖν, against, for (in the phrase to go for): ΡΙΣΤΟ Δ ὀ-κοῖν Δ ὀ-κέι, “they run against each other.” Δ ὀ-κουῖν ΣΕ Δ ὀ-κοῖν Δ ὀ-παῖ, he went for his father.

Δ ὀ-κοῖ, by the side of, hard by, along. This is often contracted to κοῖ: κοῖ ΝΑ ὀ-ριῖ, “beside the (river) Bride.”

Δ ὀ-ἀφῶ, after: Δ ὀ-ἀφῶ ΝΑ ὀ-ριῖ ΣΗ, “after that lay.”

Δ ὀ-μεῖσιν, amongst: ΣΙΟΣ Δ ὀ-μεῖσιν ΝΑ ὀ-κοῖν, “down amongst the woods.”

Δ ὀ-παῖ, in presence of.

Δ ὀ-ἀφῶ, forward, over against, opposite: Δ ὀ-ἀφῶ ΝΑ ὀ-ριῖ, to go forward, to progress: Δ ὀ-ἀφῶ ΝΑ ὀ-ριῖ, opposite (exposed to) the wind.

Δ ὀ-ἀφῶ, in front of, opposite: Δ ὀ-ἀφῶ ΝΑ ὀ-ριῖ Δ ὀ-παῖ, “they used to lie. customarily, in beds opposite their father” (Children of Lir).

Δ ὀ-βun, on foundation.

Δ ὀ-κεῖν, for (in the phrase to go for); as Δ ὀ-κεῖν ΝΑ ὀ-ριῖ ΣΗ, “Naisi said to Ardan to go for Fergus.”

Δ ὀ-φῶ, through, throughout, during: Δ ὀ-φῶ ΝΑ ὀ-ριῖ, “during a year.”

Δ ὀ-φῶ, throughout, amongst Δ ὀ-φῶ ΝΑ ὀ-κεῖν, amongst the waves.

Δ ὀ-κύ, behind.

Δ ὀ-son, for the sake of, although.

Δ ὀ-ἀφῶ, after: Δ ὀ-ἀφῶ Δ ὀ-κέι, after one another, one after another.

Κοῖ, contracted from Δ ὀ-κοῖ.

ὀ-ἀφῶ, as to: ὀ-ἀφῶ ΝΑ ὀ-ριῖ, “as to Blanaid.”

ὀ-ἐῖ, after: ὀ-ἐῖ ΝΑ ὀ-ριῖ, “after the deluge.”

ὀ-ῖον or ὀ-ῖον, towards: ὀ-ῖον ΝΑ ὀ-ριῖ, “he goes forward towards his ship.”

Do cum, towards.

Do réir, according to.

Go nuige, unto, until.

Go d-tí, to, unto, as far as: siubail go d-tí an dorus,
walk to the door,

Iomtúsa, as to: iomtúsa Fhinn, "as to Finn."

Fá tuairim, towards.

Láim le or láim re, near, by, beside: suiró láim liom, sit
near me; láim re beannaib boirce, "beside Beanna
Boirche."

Os cionn, over, above: Sraoibh Dia os cionn sac uile
nó, "love God above all things:" ro éirib os cionn an
saoi, "he rose over the spear."

I s-cionn, the same as a s-ceann: i s-cionn na bliana,
"at the end of the year."

Tar ceann, besides, for the sake of, beyond, in preference to.

Tar ais, backwards; same as air ais.

Tar éis, after; the same as déis: tar éis na Samna,
"after the Samhain (1st of November)."

Timceall, about, around: teacht timceall Ohiarmada,
"to go around Dermat."

Os comair, in presence of, before the face of: os comair
Fhinn, "in presence of Finn."

III. CONJUNCTIONS.

1. There are few simple conjunctions in the Irish language.

2. There are, however, many compound conjunctions, much like the English conjunctive phrases, "for the reason that," "to the end that," &c.

3. Generally speaking, the meanings of the compound conjunctions may be easily gathered from the signification of the words that compose them; but there are a few whose meanings are not so plain.

4. The following is a list of the simple conjunctions with their meanings, together with those of the compound conjunctions whose meanings are not quite obvious.

Δὲ, but, except.

Δὲ ἄλλα, but however.

Ἄς, and; often contracted to Δ's, ΔS, and 's.

Αἰρ ἀν ἀὐτάρ σιν, wherefore.

Ἄν, an interrogative particle: ἀν ὅ-φυλ sí slán? Is she well?

Ἀρ, the same as the last, only used with the past tense. See. p. 58.

βίῳ, although: it is really the third singular imperative of the verb τάιμ.

Ὀίῳ: see ὅίῳ.

Ὀμ, as.

Ὀά, if: sometimes written Ὀά μο.

Ὀο βρίζ, because.

Ὀο ἔμ ζο, in order that.

Ὀός, yet, moreover.

Ὀῖ, or Ὀῖεα, although.

Ὀο, that.

Ὀναὶ αἰρε σιν, wherefore.

Ὀρ, that: formed of the preceding and ῥο: see p. 58.

Ὀνά, ἰνά: see ἰνά.

Ὀννυς ζο, in order that, so that.

Ὀά, if.

Ὀά τά ζο, although that.

Ὀαρ, as: see ἠνα.

Ὀνα, if not, unless; often written ἠρ, and even (corruptly) ἠαρ.

Ὀαῖεα, if so, well then.

Ὀαρ σιν, ἠαρ σο, in that manner, in this manner: thus.

Ὀά, than: see ἰονά.

Ὀά, nor, not.

Ὀό, or: often pronounced ἠύ in Munster.

Ὀ, since, seeing that, because.

Ὀ ἔαρε, since, whereas.

Ὀιρ, because.

Ὀυ, before.

Ὀιμε σιν, therefore, wherefore.

IV. INTERJECTIONS.

1. The following is a list of the most common interjections. Besides these there are many interjectional expressions somewhat like the English, "O shame!" "Alack! and well-a-day!" but it is not necessary to enumerate them:—

Α, the sign of the vocative case, usually translated O.

ΔS τρυάξ, alas! what pity!

Εἰστ, hush! list

Ἰαρορ, Ἰαροῖρ, alas

Ἰαροῖρ ζευρ, alas! O sharp sorrow!

Ἰέα, see! behold

Ἰαῖρ, woe! O sad!

Ἰονάρε, O shame!

Ἰονυαρ, alas! woe is me!

Ἰο ἔρυαξ: see ΔS τρυάξ.

Ὀ, ὠ, alas!

Ὀόν, or ὠόν, alas! written ὠάν or ὠάν in old writings.

Ὀλαζόν, alas!

CHAPTER VII.

PREFIXES AND AFFIXES.

1. There are in Irish, as in other languages, prefixes and affixes, which modify the meanings of words.

I. PREFIXES.

1. The following is a list of the principal prefixes with their meanings: it will be observed that many of them have a double form, which arises from conformity to the rule *caol le caol* &c.

2. Most of these are inseparable particles; but a few are also employed independently as separate words.

Δis or **eis**, back or again, like English *re*: as **ioc**, payment; **ΔisioC**, repayment, restitution: **eirġe**, rising; **eiseirġe** resurrection.

Δm̃ or **Δim̃**, a negative particle, like English *un*: as **réir̃**, open, clear; **Δim̃réir̃**, difficult, rough.

Δn, an intensitive particle: as **luaċġáireΔċ**, joyful ; as **Δn-luaċġáireΔċ**, overjoyed.

Δn or **Δin**, a negative particle, like English *un*: as **τράċ** time; **Δnτράċ**, untimely: **mían**, desire; **Δinm̃ian**, evil desire.

Δċ, a reiterative, like English *re*: as **ráċ**, a saying; **Δċráċ**, a repetition.

Δċ has sometimes the meaning of English *dis* in *dismantle*: as **cumΔ**, a form; **ΔċcumΔċ**, to deform, to destroy; **rioġΔċ**, to crown or elect a king; **ΔiċrioġΔċ**, to dethrone.

ban, feminine (from **bean**, a woman); as **eΔċlaċ**, a messenger; **ban-eΔċlaċ** or **banm-eΔċlaċ**, a female messenger.

bic or **bioċ**, lasting, constant: as **beó**, living; **bicbeó**, everlasting.

Cóm, equal: English *co* or *con*: as **AIMSEAR**, time; **CÓM-AIMSEARAĆ**, contemporary.

Deağ, **deiğ**, good: as **blas**, taste; **Deağblas**, good or pleasant taste.

Óí, **óio**, a negative, like English *dis*: as **CÉILLIÖE**, wise; **ÓÍ-CÉILLIÖE**, foolish: **ceann**, a head; **ÓÍCEANNAÖ**, to behead.

Öroć, **Öroić**, bad or evil: as **ObAIR**, a work; **ÖROĆ-ObAIR** an evil work.

Öo and **so** are opposites, as are also often the letters **ö** and **s**. **Öo** denotes difficulty, or ill, or the absence of some good or positive quality: as **FAICSEANAĆ** or **soFAICSEANAĆ**, visible; **ÖO-FAICSEANAĆ**, invisible: **ÖOLÁS**, tribulation; **SÓLÁS**, comfort: **ÖONAS**, ill luck; **SONAS**, good luck: **ÖO-ÖÉUNTA**, hard to be done; **so-ÖÉUNTA**, easy to be done: **ÖUÖAĆ**, sad; **SUÖAĆ**, merry.

Ea, a negative, often causing eclipsis: as **ÖAINZEAN**, strong; **ÉAÖAINZEAN**, weak: **CÓIR**, just; **ÉAĞCÓIR**, injustice: **ÖROM**, heavy; **ÉAÖÖROM**, light.

Eas, a negative: as **ONÓIR**, honour; **EASONÓIR**, dishonour: **slán**, healthful; **EASLÁN**, sick: **CAIRÖEAS**, friendship; **EAS-CAIRÖEAS**, enmity.

Fo, under: as **Öuine**, a man; **FOÖuine**, an *under-man*, a common man, a servant.

Frić, against, back, *contra*: as **buille**, a stroke; **FRIĆBUILLE**, a back stroke: **ÖAC**, a hook; **FRIÖĆÖAC**, a back-hook, a barb.

Il, **iol**, many: as **IOMAÖ**, much; **ILIOMAÖ**, sundry, various: **ÖAĆ**, a colour; **IOLOÖAĆAĆ**, many coloured: **FAÖÖAR**, an edge; **IOLFÖAÖÖAIR**, many-edged weapons.

In, **ion**, fit: as **ÖÉUNTA**, done; **INÖÉUNTA**, fit to be done: **RAIÖÖE**, said; **IONRAIÖÖE**, fit to be said.

Lán, full, used as an intensitive: as **AIÖÖÉIL**, vast; **LÁNAIÖÖÉIL**, awfully vast.

Leać, half: as **UAIR**, an hour; **LEAĆUAIR**, half an hour. This word is also used to denote one of a pair: thus **SUIL**, an eye; **LEAĆ-SUIL** (literally *half an eye*), one of two eyes. See "Idiom, No. 13."

Mí, **mío**, a negative: as **meas**, respect; **MIÖMEAS**, disrespect: **CÓMAIRLE**, advice; **MIOÖCÓMAIRLE**, evil advice.

Neam, **neim**, a negative: as **COMSIĞÖE**, comprehensible; **NEAMCOMSIĞÖE**, incomprehensible: **NIÖ**, a thing; **NEIM-NIÖ**, nothing.

Reum, before, like English *pre*: as **RAIÖÖE**, said; **REUMRAIÖÖE**, aforesaid.

Ro, an intensitive particle: as **MÓR**, great; **RÓ-MÓR**, very great.

SÁR, an intensitive particle: as **MAIČ**, good; **SÁR-MAIČ**, very good.

SO, **SOI**, the opposite to **DO**, denotes apt, easy, good: as **DEARBŲČA**, proved; **SOIBEARBŲČA**, easily proved.

UR or **ÚR**, an intensitive particle: as **ÍSEAL**, low; **ÚRÍSEAL**, very low, humble, mean, vile.

II. AFFIXES OR TERMINATIONS.*

1. The following is a list of the principal affixes or terminations, with their meanings; but it does not include inflectional terminations, which are all given in connection with declensions and conjugations.

ΔČ, when it is the termination of an adjective, means full of, abounding in, like the English *y* and *ous*, with the former of which it seems cognate; as **DRAIŲEAN**, the black-thorn; **DRAIŲEANAČ**, abounding in black-thorn: **BRIAČAR**, a word; **BRIAČRAČ**, wordy, talkative.

ΔČ, as the termination of a noun, generally denotes a personal agent; as **CÚMAČO**, power: **CÚMAČOΔČ**, a mighty person: **CONNAČTAČ**, a native of Connaught.

ΔČT, an abstract termination, like the English *ness* and *ty* (in *probity*): as **CARČANAČ**, charitable; **CARČANAČT**, charity: **MÓR** and **MÓRŲA**, great; **MÓRŲAČT**, greatness.

AIŲE, **UIŲE**, or **ŲE**, a personal termination, denoting a doer; as **COS**, a foot; **COISIŲE**, a walker: **TIOMÁN**, drive; **TIOMÁN-AIŲE**, a driver.

AIŲE or **IRE**, a personal termination, denoting an agent or doer; as **LORŲ**, a track; **LORŲAIŲE**, a tracker: **CEALŲ**, guile; **CEALŲAIŲE**, a deceiver.

AMAIL has the same meaning as the English *like* and *ly*: as **FLAIČ**, a prince; **FLAIČEAMAIL**, princely.

AN, a diminutive termination, but it has now nearly lost its diminutive sense ; as **LOČ** a lake ; **LOČÁN**, a small lake.

AS or **EAS**, and sometimes the letter **S** alone, a termination denoting abstract quality, like **ΔČT**; as **AOIBINN**, delightful;

* For a full account of these terminations see the author's "Origin and History of Irish Names of Places." Second series, Chaps. I. and II.

ΔΟΙΒΝΕΑΣ, delightfulness or delight: ceann, a head; CEANNAS, headship, authority.

BHAR and BRE have a collective or cumulative sense; as DUILLÉ, a leaf; DUILLÉABHAR, foliage: DAIR, an oak; DAIRBRE, a place of oaks.

CHAR has a collective sense like the last; as beann, a peak or gable; BEANNCHAR, abounding in peaks or gables.

DE, an ancient adjectival termination, has much the same meaning as the English *ful* and *ly* (in *manly*). In the modern language it is varied to the forms DA, ÌA, and TA; as MÓR, great; MÓRÌA, majestic: FEAR, a man; FEARÌA, manly: MÍLE, a champion; MÍLEAÌTA, champion-like, knightly.

E denotes abstract quality, like AÍT; as FINN, fair or white; FINNE, fairness: BOZ, soft; BUIGE, softness.

IN, a diminutive termination. This may be said to be the only diminutive that still retains its full force in the living language; and it is much used in Ireland even where Irish is not spoken. BÓCHAR, a road; BÓCHARÍN (*bohereen*), a little road: CRUSK, a pitcher; CRUISKEEN, a little pitcher.

LAĆ, NAĆ, RAĆ, TAĆ, TRAĆ, have all the same meaning as AĆ, namely, full of, abounding in; as BRIS, break; BRISLEAĆ, a breach, a complete defeat: MUC, a pig; MUCLAĆ, a piggery: LUACAIR, rushes; LUACARNAĆ, a rushy place: BOZ, a bog or soft place; BOZRAĆ, a place full of bogs: COILL, a wood; COILLTEAĆ, a woody place. These seem to be cognate with the terminations in the English words *poult-ry*, *varie-ty*, &c.

MHAR means abounding in, like the English *ful* and *ly*; as BRIZ, power; BRIOZMAR, powerful.

OZ, a diminutive termination; as CÍAR, black; CÍAROS, a black little animal (a clock): ZABAL, a fork; ZABALÓZ, a little fork.

OIR, or DOIR, or TOIR, denotes an agent or doer, the same as the English *er* in *reaper*; as BUAIL, strike; BUAILTEÓIR, a thrasher: COINNEAL, a candle; COINNLEÓIR, a candlestick: SPEAL, a scythe; SPEALADOIR, a mower.

RE has a collective signification, like BHAR; as BEUL, the mouth; BÉIRE, language, speech.

SEAC is used as a sort of feminine termination; as ZALL, an Englishman; ZAILLSEAC, an Englishwoman: ÓINSEAC, a female fool (from an old root ÓN, whence the old word ÓNMIT, a fool, the equivalent of the modern AMAĐÁN).

TAĆ and TRAĆ: see LAĆ.

PART III.

SYNTAX.*

CHAPTER I.

NOUNS.

1. When two nouns come together signifying different things, the second one is in the genitive case; as ζυῖ ζαῖαιρ, the voice of a hound; ι ὀ-ῥλαιοῖος εῤεανν, “in the sovereignty of Erin;” ὀάρρ να η-ινσε, the top of the island.

The noun in the genitive always follows the noun that governs it.

2. When the genitive noun is singular masculine, its initial is aspirated if the article is used; as μαc αν ῑιρ, the son of the man. (See pages 17, 18, for this rule and its exceptions).

3. When the article is not used with the governed noun in the singular number, the initial of the latter is generally not aspirated (except in the case mentioned in next Rule); as Conall ι ζ-cροῖαιῖ ὀάις, “Conall in the forms of *death*,” Δ η-ῖόλās ὀρόιῖε Δ’s πέινε, “in the sorrow of *bondage and of pain*.”

* Several of the rules of Syntax have been unavoidably anticipated in Orthography and Etymology, as they are in every Irish Grammar. These rules will be referred to in their proper places in this Syntax, or repeated when thought necessary.

4. When the noun in the genitive is a proper name, its initial is generally aspirated, even though the article is not used; as *sliocht* *Shaoiðil*, “the race of Gaodhal;” *clorðeam* *Mhanannain*, “the sword of Manannan.”

Exception :—In this case, *ð* and *τ* often resist aspiration (p. 34) ; as *Eire inġean* *ðealbðoit*, “Eire, the daughter of Dealbhaoth.”

5. If the governed noun be in the genitive plural, its initial is eclipsed with the article, (for which see page 18); and the initial is generally aspirated, if the article is not used; as *ðainġen* *mac n-Uirneac*, “the fortress of [*the*] sons of Usna;” *buiðean* *curað*, “a company of knights;” *ðias* *ðan*, “two women” (or rather “a pair of women”).

Even in the absence of the article however, an eclipsis sometimes occurs; as *naoi naonðar* *ðo* *ði* *aġ* *teac* *ð’iarrat* *cíora aġus cána* *ð-fear n-Eirionn*, “nine times nine persons who were coming to demand the taxes and tributes of *the men* of Erin.”

Sometimes also, in the absence of the article, the noun in the genitive plural is neither aspirated nor eclipsed.

6. When two nouns come together signifying the same thing (or in apposition), they generally agree in case; as *nuaða* *airġioðlám* *mac* *eac* *taiz* *mic* *eabarlaim*, “Nuadha Silver-hand, son of Eachtach, son of Eadarlamh;” *na* *ð-trí* *ð-finneamna*, *mac* *eoc* *aið*, “of the three Finnavnas, sons of Eochad.”

Here, in the first example, *nuaða* is nominative, and so is *mac*, which is in apposition to it; *eac* *taiz* is genitive, and so is the next word, *mic*, which is in apposition to it. In the second example, *finneamna* is in the genitive (plural), and *mac* also, in apposition to it, is in the genitive (plural).

For exceptions to this Rule, see “Idioms,” No. 33, p. 129. See also next rule.

7. The last rule is not always observed: departures from it are sometimes found, even in good Irish writings; as, *ðáinnit* *buit* *órða* *mar*

ḃiṛeabṛ ar mháire, bean sheaḡam an fíḡeabṛóra,
 “yellow gold rings as used-to-be on Mary, wife of
 John (the son of) the weaver;” ḡainic riḡ Chiar-
 ruiḃe luacra ḃ’fios a comḃalta, eabṛon, Cian mac
 Oilíolla, “the King of Kerry-Luachra came to
 visit his foster-son, that is, Cian, the son of
 Oilíoll: ḃo ḡriall (Oscar) a ḡ-coinne mheargaiḡ
 mire, an tréan leoman “Oscar went to meet
 the furious Meargach, *the strong lion*.”

The first example exhibits a disagreement in case between **mháire** and **bean**, which are in apposition, the former being dative (after **ar**), the latter nominative (its dative would be **mnaoi**, p. 29). In the second example **comḃalta** is genitive (after the infinitive, Eule 15, p. 112), and **Cian**, in apposition to it, is nominative (its genitive would be **Cém**). In the last example **mheargaiḡ** is genitive, and **leoman**, in apposition to it, is nominative. This last example however, seems properly to belong to a class of exceptions to Rule 7 which are explained further on (“Idioms:” No. 33, page 129).

8. A noun used adjectively in English is commonly expressed in Irish by a genitive case; as English, “a gold ring,” Irish, **fáinne óir**, a ring of gold. This form of expression is very common in Irish; as **fean olíḡe**, a lawyer; literally “a man of law.”

9. Collective nouns are singular in form, and as such they take the singular form of the article (when the article is used); but they are plural in signification, and as such they generally take adjectives and pronouns in the plural number, and also verbs in the plural, when, in accordance with Par. 9, p. 50, the plural form of the verb is used; as, **noḡtuir an fúireann sin**, “that company disclose;” **tanḡadṛar an buiḃean cṛadṛ sin ḃo láḡair fhinn, agus ḃo beannuiḡ siad ḃo**, “that *company* of knights *came* to the presence of Finn, and *they* saluted him.”

The personal nouns from **ḃiar** to **ḃeicneabṛar**, mentioned at page 39, follow this rule: as **ḃo ḃadṛar an ḃiar sin ḡo h-imreasnac**, “that pair were at strife.”

10. Nouns denoting a part commonly take *de* with the dative of the nouns (or pronouns) of which they form a part; as *ζαῶαρ ὅ'άρ ηζαῶαραιβ*, "a hound of our hounds;" *ἄον ἔαορ οιοῶ*, "one berry of them;" *ζαῆ οῦνε ὀε'η ῖοβυλ*, "each person of the people."

11. The personal nouns from *οιας* to *οειῆνεαῶαρ* inclusive (p. 39,) and also *τεόρα*, three, generally govern nouns in the genitive plural; as *οιας ὀαν*, "two (of) women;" *ἃ ἔριúr mac Ἀγυς ἃ ο-τπιυρ βαν*, "his three sons and their three wives;" *τεόρα βαν*, "three women;" *ναονῶαρ ταιοισεᾶῆ*, "nine chieftains."

But they sometimes take *de* with the dative as in last rule; as *ναοι ναονῶαρ οο ἡαοραιῶ να ὀ-ῑόμοραῆ*, "nine times nine of the stewards of the Fomorians;" *μο ὀίς mac, μο ὀίς ὀ'ῑεαραιβ*, "my two sons, my two men."

CHAPTER II.

THE ARTICLE AND NOUN.

1. The article agrees with its noun in number, gender, and case; as *ἄη ῑεαρ*, the man; *να ciρce*, of the hen; *να βα*, the cows.

2. For the influence of the article on the noun, see p. 17.

3. When one noun governs another in the genitive, the article can be used only with the latter. Thus, in English we can say "the age of the world" (using the definite article with each noun); but in Irish, the corresponding expression is, *ἄοις ἄη οοῡᾶιν*, not, *ἄη ἄοις ἄη οοῡᾶιν*.

Exception:—When a demonstrative pronoun follows the governing noun, or when the two nouns come together as a compound word, the governing noun may take the article; as *ἄη τ-οιῶε μύιντε*, the teacher; *μά οο ὀειρ tú ἄη οιρεᾶο σιν οúινν 'σαν λό ρο να η-οεόρ*, "if thou givest

so much to us in this day of tears." Here the article is used before both *ló* and *deór*. *ṬANGADAR ARÍS I n-EIRINN AN sliocht* so *Shimeon bhrí*, "these descendants of Simon Brec came again into Erin:" here the article is used before *sliocht*, the governing noun.

4. When a possessive pronoun is used with the genitive noun, the article cannot be used with either; thus, "the house of my father" is *teach m'athar*, not *an teach m'athar*.

The peculiarity noticed in the last two rules exists also in English when the possessive case is used, i.e., the article can be used only with the possessive noun; as the world's age; my father's house.

5. When a demonstrative pronoun is used with a noun, the article is also used; as *an fear sin*, that man, literally "the man that;" *na mná úd*, yonder women: literally "the women yonder."

6. The article is used before the names of some countries and cities, where the definite article would not be used in English; as *Moenan*, *abb Caṡrac Fursa isin Frainc*, *deú*, "Moenan, abbot of Caher Fursa, in (the) France, died;" *Cruacha na h-Eireann*, "the stacks of (the) Erin;" *Tuaisceart na h-Asia*, "the north of (the) Asia." There is in Irish also a form of phrase corresponding to the English "the mighty Hector;" as *an t-Oscar á*, "the noble Oscar."

7. When an adjective is predicated of a noun by the verb *is* (in any of its forms), the article is used with the noun (but in the corresponding expression in English the definite article would not be used); as *is maí an fear é*, he is a good man: literally "he is the good man."

8. The Irish article is used before abstract nouns much more commonly than the English definite article; as *an t-ocrus*, the hunger; *trí n-áb do cí*m:—*an peaca*, *an bá*r, *a's an pí*a, "three things I see, *the* sin, *the* death, and the pain."

CHAPTER III.

THE ADJECTIVE AND NOUN.

1. Adjectives denoting fulness or a part of anything may take either the dative after *de* or the genitive; as (dative after *de*):—*idir òá òaraile lán de leann*, “between two barrels full of ale;” *tá mé lán do náire*, “I am full of shame;” *mórán d’uaistib*, “many of nobles:” (genitive):—*lán a òuirn*, “the full of his fist;” *an raib mórán airgid aige*, “had he much of money?” *craob draoiḡin agus a lán áirnead uirre*, “a branch of blackthorn and its full of sloes on it.”

2. The adjective in the comparative degree takes *ná* (or *iná* or *íoná*) before the noun which follows it; as *is binne a ceól ná lon ’sná smól*, “sweeter is her voice (music) than the blackbird and than the thrush.”

Exception:—If the adjective in the comparative degree has *de* (“of it”) after it (see Idiom 39, p. 132), then *ná* is not used; *as nac bu fearrde óób é*, “that they would be none the better of it.”

AGREEMENT AND COLLOCATION OF THE
ADJECTIVE AND NOUN.

FIRST CASE: When the adjective is joined immediately with the noun.

When the adjective is joined immediately with the noun as a qualifying or limiting term (as in the English “a high tower”), in this case the following **ten** rules apply.

1. The natural position of the adjective is after its noun; as *cablac mór*, “a great fleet.”

The chief exceptions to this are stated in the next two rules.

2. Monosyllabic adjectives are often placed before their nouns; as **CAOL-ĤEAP**, "slender man;" **MÓR ĤAIRRE**, "great sea;" **ĤUB-ĤARRAIS**, "black rock."

3. This is especially the case with the following adjectives, some of which are hardly ever used after their nouns: **ĤEAGĤ**, good; **ĤPOĤ**, evil; **ĤÍOP**, true; **NUĤĤ**, new; **SEAN**, old; **ĤUAĤĤ**, left-handed.

Numeral adjectives form another exception, for which see next chapter.

4. When a name consists of two words, the adjective comes between them; as **SLIABĤ AĤĤAL-mÓP LUĤĤRA**, "the tremendous-large Slieve Lougher;" **EAMUIN MÍN ÁLUINN MAĤĤA**, "the smooth beautiful Eman Macha."

5. When the adjective follows its noun, it agrees with it in gender, number, and case; as **ĤEAP MAIĤ**, a good man; **SĤÉUL NA MNÁ MÓIRE**, "the story of the large woman" (gen. sing. fem.); **AP AN AIĤĤÉIS IONĤANTAIĤ**, "on the wonderful abyss" (dat. sing. fem.).

6. When the adjective follows its noun, the initial of the adjective is aspirated under the circumstances already stated in Par. 6, page 10; or eclipsed in the circumstance stated in Par. 3, page 34.

7. When two or more nouns are joined together, and are followed by an adjective which qualifies or limits them, all and each, the adjective agrees with the last: in other words, it is the last noun only that influences the adjective both in grammatical inflection, and in initial change; as **BEAN AGUS ĤEAP MAIĤ**, a good woman and man; **ĤEAP AGUS BEAN MAIĤ**, a good man and woman.

8. When the adjective precedes the noun, as in Rules 2 and 3, above, it does not agree with the noun, i.e., it is not influenced by the noun,

either as to inflection, or as to initial change; in other words, the simple form of the adjective is used, whatever be the number, gender, or case of the noun; as *mór uaiste*, "great nobles;" *do mór uaisliú*, "to [the] great nobles;" *bán cnoic Éireann*, "the fair hills of Erin;" *luach bárcá*, swift barks; *fíor sgeul*, "a true story;" *fíor sgeulcá*, "true stories."

9. When the adjective precedes the noun, the adjective and the noun are sometimes regarded as one compound word; and the initial of the noun is aspirated (in accordance with Par. 4, page 10): also the vowel of the adjective is often modified by the rule *caol le caol* &c.; as *Deirdre an Duib-sleibhe*, "Deirdre of Dubh-Shliabh;" *óig-bean*, a young woman.

10. When the adjective precedes the noun, the initial of the adjective is subject to the same changes as if the adjective and the noun formed one word, i.e., one noun; as *záire na n-óig-fear*, "the laughter of the young men;" *an t-árdo-ollamh sin*, "that chief professor;" *an t-sean-bean bocht*, "the poor old woman."

SECOND CASE: When the adjective is connected with the noun by a verb.

When the adjective, instead of being joined immediately with the noun, is predicated of, or ascribed to, the noun by a verb of any kind (as in the English, "the man is tall," "he considered the man tall," "he made the knife sharp," "the roads were made straight"), in this case, the following **three** rules apply.

1. When an adjective is predicated of a noun by the verb *τά*, it follows the noun, the order being:—verb, noun, adjective; as *τά an lá breá*, the day is fine.

2. When an adjective is predicated of a noun

by the verb *is*, it precedes the noun, the order being:—verb, adjective, noun; as *is breáḡ an lá é*, it is a fine day.

3. When an adjective is ascribed to a noun by a verb of any kind, the adjective does not agree with the noun, i.e., the adjective is not influenced by it, either initially or inflectionally; in other words, the simple form of the adjective, without inflection, is used, whatever be the number or gender of the noun; and the initial of the adjective is neither aspirated nor eclipsed (unless under the influence of some other word), as *is aibinn do cuain acas do calapuir acas do maḡa mínscoṭ-acá caemáilne*, “delightful are thy harbours, and thy bays, and thy flowery lovely plains:” *agus croicne réitead ar na n-daṭúḡad dearg*, “and rams’ skins dyed red.”—(Exodus, xxv. 5).

The first example (from the story of the Children of Usna), exhibits both an agreement according to Rule 5, page 101, and a disagreement according to the present rule. For the three nouns are plural, and the two last adjectives which qualify them directly are in the plural form, while the first adjective *aibinn* (modern *aoibinn*) which is asserted of them by *is*, is in its simple form (the plural would be *aibinne* or *aibne*). In the second example *croicne* is plural, while *dearg* is singular (plural *dearga*).

Observe the difference in meaning in the following, according to agreement or disagreement:—*Do rigne sé na braic ḡlasa*; *do rigne sé na braic ḡlas*: in the first the adjective agrees with the noun, (both being plural), showing that it qualifies it directly (Rule 5, p. 101) and that the meaning is, “he made the green mantles;” in the second there is no agreement, (the adjective being singular and the noun plural), showing that the adjective is connected with the noun by the verb (Rule 3 above), and that the meaning is, “he made the mantles green.”

CHAPTER IV.

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

1. A numeral adjective, whether cardinal or ordinal, when it consists of one word, goes before its noun; as τρί φίρ, three men; σαν ὅαρα η-άιτ, “in the second place.”

2. Numeral adjectives, both cardinal and ordinal, from 11 to 19 inclusive, take their nouns between the simple numeral and ὀέας; as τρί καρὰιι ὀέας, thirteen horses; αν τρεας ἄκαρὰιι ὀέας, the thirteenth horse.

3. Δον, one; ὀά, two; ἄεα, first; and τρεας, third, cause aspiration; as Δον φεαρ, one man; ὀά ἡναοι, two women; αν τρεας φεατ, “the third occasion.”

4. The numerals σεατ, οτ, ναοι, and ὀει, cause eclipsis (except the noun begins with s, in which case there is no change), as σεατ μ-βλιαῶ-να, “seven years;” οτ μ-βα, “eight cows;” ναοι η-αιῶνε, “nine rivers;” ὀει ὀ-φίρ, “ten men.”

5. The numerals τρί, τεῖρε, cúγ, sé, the ordinals (except ἄεα and τρεας: Rule 3 above), and the multiples of ten, cause no initial change; as τεῖρε ζαῶαιρ, “four hounds.”

6. Δον, one, and all the multiples of ten, take their nouns in the singular number; as Δον λά, one day; ἄεα ceann, a hundred heads (lit. “a hundred head,” just as we say “a hundred head of cattle”); τρί καοζα ἑο, “three times fifty heroes;” míle bean, “a thousand women.”

7. **ḐÁ**, two, takes both the article and the noun in the singular number; and if the noun be feminine, it will be in the dative form; as **ḐÁ fĕAR**, two men; **an ḐÁ lám̃**, the two hands. (See next two rules).

8. If the noun following **ḐÁ** be in the genitive, it will be in the genitive plural; as **lán Δ ḐÁ lám̃**, "the full of his two hands."

9. Although **ḐÁ** takes the article and noun in the singular, yet the adjectives and pronouns referring to the noun will be in the plural, and the noun may also take a plural verb; as **Ḑo ḡluaiseΔḐAR an ḐÁ čréinmíleΔḐ sin**, "these two strong heroes went;" **ro ḡΔḐ Δ ḐÁ sleΔḡ čró-fAIRRINGE čRANN-REAḡRA AR NA Ḑ-počRUḡΔḐ Δ Ḑ-fuil načRAč neime**, "he took his two wide-socketed thick-handled spears, *they* having been bathed in the blood of serpents." Here the two adjectives and the pronoun referring to **sleΔḡ**, are plural.

CHAPTER V.

THE PRONOUN.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

1. Personal pronouns agree with the nouns they represent, in gender, number, and person; as **is maič an Ḑean í**, she is a good woman; **is maič an fĕAR é**, he is a good man; **is mór na Ḑaoine iΔḐ**, they are great men.

2. A personal pronoun, or a possessive pronoun, which stands for a sentence or part of a sentence, is

third person singular masculine; as *ḃÁ m-béirís fir Éireann an ḃAR n-aḡairḃ, naḉ bu feirreḃe ḃóirḃ é*, “if the men of Erin were against you, they would not be the better of *it*,” (here the pronoun *é* stands for the sentence).

3. The accusative forms of the personal pronouns are often used as nominatives: always with *is* (see Rule 18, p. 113), and with passive verbs (see Rule 20, p. 113); and sometimes with other verbs; as *más maiḉ na leaḡa sib, ar éisíon*, “‘if ye are the good physicians,’ says *he*.”

II. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

1. A possessive pronoun is never used without a noun.

In English there are distinct forms of the possessive pronouns which can stand without nouns (*mine, thine, hers, &c.*), but there are no forms corresponding to these in Irish.

2. The possessive pronouns precede their nouns; as *mo máḡair*, my mother; *a ḡ-carbad*, their chariot.

3. The possessives *mo*, my; *ḃo*, thy; and *a*, his; aspirate the initials of their nouns; as *mo ḉeann*, my head; *ḃo ḉos*, thy foot; *a mḡeur*, his finger.

4. The possessive *a*, her, requires the initial of its noun in its primitive state (neither aspirated nor eclipsed), and if the initial be a vowel, it prefixes *h*; as *a máḡair*, her mother; *a h-aḡair*, her father.

5. The possessives *ár*, our; *ḃar*, your; and *a*, their; eclipse the initial consonants of their nouns (except *s*, on which they exert no influence), and prefix *n* to vowels; as *ár ḃ-tír*, our country; *ḃar m-ba*, your cows; *a n-aḡair*, their father.

6. Possessive pronouns amalgamated with prepositions (see p. 45) have the same influence over the initials of their nouns, as they have in their uncompounded state; as *ḡom ċroir̃e*, to my heart; *óna ḡ-ćír*, from their country.

7. The manner of using the emphatic increase after the possessive pronouns has been already pointed out in Par. 3, page 45. For an additional Rule of possessives, see Rule 2, page 105.

III. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The relative follows its antecedent and precedes its verb; as *an ćé Δ śuibalfas*, the person who shall walk.

2. The relative aspirates the initial of its verb; as *an laoc̃ Δ m̃arḡ an ć-ΔćΔć*, "the hero who slew the giant." To this the next rule is an exception.

3. When the relative Δ signifies "all that" (see p. 47) it eclipses the initial of its verb; as *Δ ḡ-fuil ó śhailliḡ buḡ ḡeas*, "all that is from Galway southwards;" *ḡo réir Δ n-ḡuḡramar*, "according to *what* we have said."

4. When the relative Δ is governed by a preposition, expressed or understood, and is followed immediately by a verb to which it is not the nominative, the initial of the verb (except s) is eclipsed; as *Δ sé nḡ imorra ḡá ḡ-ćáinic Δ bás* "(the following) is the circumstance, indeed, *from which came* his death;" *an ḡoić ina n-ićiḡís*, "the tent in which they used to eat;" *Δ ḡuḡairć fionn śo n-ḡionśnaḡ (śić) śḡḡ bé nós Δ n-ḡionśnaḡ ḡiarmaid í*, "Finn said that he would make (peace) in whatever manner Diarmaid would make it" (here the preposition *ann* is understood,

ḡiò bé nós ann a n-ḡionḡnað ḡiarmaid í, whatever the manner *in which* Diarmaid would make it.) (See next rule).

5. If, in the case stated in the last rule, the verb is in the past tense, with the particle **ro** or **do**, the initial of the verb is not eclipsed, but aspirated (Pars. 1 and 4, p. 58); as **áic ar tuit ḡara ḡearḡ**, “the place in which fell Dara Dearg.”

6. The relative precedes the verb which governs it in the accusative (as in English); as **an tír a ḡraḡuiḡim**, the country which I love.

7. As the relative has no inflection for case, the construction must determine whether the relative is the nominative to the verb which follows it, or is governed by it in the accusative; as **an cara a ḡraḡuiḡiò mé**, the friend whom I love; **an cara a ḡraḡuiḡeas mé**, the friend who loves me.

8. The relative is often omitted both in the nominative and in the accusative; as **oḡlaoc do muinntir nín mic péil tainic uaid do ḡraç na eirionn**, “a youth of the people of Nin Mac Peil (who) came from him to view Erin.” **An leabbar ro scríob (Cambrensis) do tḡarasḡbail eirionn**, “the book (which) Cambrensis wrote on the history of Erin.”

9. The relative **a** is often disguised by combination with other words and particles, especially with **po**, the mark of the past tense; as **an tír ór tainic mé**, “the country from which I came” (here **ór** = **ó a ro**); **pláig lér marḡað nóí míle ḡíob**, “a plague, by which were killed nine thousand of them” (here **lé** = **le a ro**); **an tír ḡá ḡ-tainic sé**, the country to which he came (**ḡá** = **do a**); **lá ḡar comórað aonaç le riḡ eireann**, “a day on which was convoked an assembly by the king of Erin” (**ḡar** = **do a ro**); **ní ḡeas liomsa ar**

slóinneas féin mar eiric, "I do not think it little what I have named as an *eric*." (ΔR=Δ po, in which Δ means "all that:" Par. 3, page 47.)

IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The demonstrative pronouns follow their nouns or pronouns; as Δn fear sin, that man; cia h-é sin? who is that?

Exception:—When the verb *is* in any of its forms is understood; as rúo b̄ar ʒ-curo, "yonder (is) your meal;" so Δn lá, this is the day.

2. If the noun be followed by one or more adjectives, the demonstrative pronoun comes last as cia Δn fear ballac̄ binnb̄riač̄rač̄ úo? "Who is that freckled sweet-worded man?"

V. INTERROGATIVE AND INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

1. An interrogative pronoun comes first in the sentence; as cá b̄-fuil mo leab̄ar? where is my book? cia Δn laoc̄ úo Δr ʒualainn ʒhoill? "who is that hero at the shoulder of Goll?"

This rule holds good even when the interrogative is governed by a preposition, i.e., the preposition follows the interrogative that it governs; as cao Δr tu? out of what (place art) thou? ʒo de mar tá tú? how do you do? (literally "like to what art thou?") creuo fá Δr eirʒeab̄ar, "what for did ye rise?"

2. When uile precedes its noun, it means "every;" when it follows the noun it means "all;" as slán ón uile ʒalar, "sound from every sickness;" do bač̄ao Δn cine baona uile ʒo h-Δon oč̄tar, "all the human race was drowned, all to (except) a single eight."

There are occasional exceptions; as ɔrong Δimb̄fiosac̄ is na h-uile sub̄áilcib̄, "people ignorant in *all* virtues" (in this passage from Keating, uile means "all" though it precedes its noun)

CHAPTER VI.

THE VERB.

1. As a general rule the verb precedes its nominative; as *ḡo ḡluair Fergus*, "Fergus went;" *ḡo claoiḡeaoḡ mac ḡarraioḡ*, "Mac Garraidh was defeated." (See next Rule.)

2. When the nominative is a relative or an interrogative pronoun, it precedes the verb; and sometimes also in poetry, the nominative, even though a noun, precedes the verb; as *an te a ḡiuḡalfas*, the person who will walk; *creuḡ atá anso?* what is here? *ḡeóraiḡce síora ḡan sḡic ḡan sos míanaio a ḡ-tír 's a n-ḡútcas*, "perpetual exiles without pause or rest, long-for their country and their native-home."

3. When the verb is transitive, i.e., when it governs the accusative (see Rule 9, p. 111), the usual order is verb, nominative, object ; as *ḡo aḡel Concoḡap ḡorać*, "Conchobhar addressed Borach;" *ḡo líon ḡráinne an corn*, "Grainne filled the goblet."

4. But when the accusative is a relative or an interrogative pronoun, the usual order is, pronoun (or accusative), verb, nominative; as *an laoc a conairc mé ané*, the hero *whom I saw* yesterday; *caḡ ḡeir tú?* what sayest thou?

5. When the verb *τά* is used, the usual order is, verb, nominative, predicate; as *taio na reulta ro-lonnrać*, the stars are very bright.

6. When the verb *is*, expressed or understood, is used, the usual order is, verb, predicate, nominative; as *ba ḡinne a ḡlór ná ceól na n-éun*, "*her voice*

was sweeter than the music of the birds:" ní fada uait an áit, "not (is) far from thee the place."

Exception.—If the article is used before the predicate, or if the predicate is a proper name, the order is, verb, subject, predicate; as is tusa an tír ro-duibinn, "thou art the delightful country;" is mé Cían mac Cainte, "I am Cian, the son of Cainte:" an tu Fionn? "art thou Finn?"

7. The only cases in which there is agreement between the verb and its nominative, are (1) when the nominative and verb are both third person singular; (2) when a noun or pronoun in third plural has a verb in third plural, in accordance with Par. 9, p. 50.

It may be doubted whether (1) is a genuine case of agreement; and the general absence of agreement between verb and nominative is further exemplified in the following rule.

8. When two or more nouns, whether singular or plural, joined by a conjunction, are nominatives to one verb, the verb has the third person singular form; as do gluais breas agus na draoidhe rómpa, "Breas and the druids went forward."

9. A transitive verb governs the noun or pronoun which is the object of the action, in the accusative case; as buail é, strike him; do cuireadar tuata de danann ceó draoidheacha i n-a d-timcheall féin, "the Tuatha de Dananns put a magical mist around themselves."

10. The initial of a verb in the infinitive mood is aspirated, unless the aspiration is prevented by some special influence. For such an influence see Par. 2, p. 60.

11. The preposition *le* or *re* before the infinitive active often gives it a passive signification; as (leabhair eile) atá re b-faicsin i n-Eirinn, "(other books) which are *to be seen* in Erin."

But in many such constructions the preposition expresses purpose, and the signification is active; as agus go m-bíod ollam re dénam feille air a céile, "and that they are ready *to do* treachery on each other."

12. The infinitive, even without the preposition *le*, has often a passive signification; as *Ḥiachra mac Eilene tigearna muḡḡorn do mārḡaḡ*, “Fiachra, son of Ailene, lord of Mourne, to be slain” (lit. “Fiachra, &c, to slay”): *agus an fear naḡ tioraḡ (an cíos) sin uaiḡ, asrón do buain óna ceann de*, “and the man who would not pay that tribute from him, his nose to be cut off from his head.”

13. One verb governs another that follows it or depends upon it in the infinitive mood; as *da m-baḡ naḡ raḡfaḡ clanna Moirne d’iarraiḡ na ḡ-caor sin*, “if it were so that the Clann Morna *had not come to seek* those berries.”

The following very important rule was first enunciated by O’Donovan, and is given here in his own words (“Irish Grammar,” p. 387.)

14. “When the governed verb is one expressing motion or gesture, which does not govern the accusative, the sign *do* is never prefixed; as *duḡairt sé liom dul ḡo Corcaig*, he told me to go to Cork.”

15. If the noun which is the object of a transitive verb in the infinitive mood follows the verb, it is in the genitive case; as *tanḡadar cablaḡ mór do ḡéanaḡ coḡuiḡ*, “a great fleet came *to make war*” (nom. *coḡaḡ*, war, gen. *coḡuiḡ*); *do milleaḡ cloinne lir*, “to kill the children of Lir.”

16. A noun or pronoun which is the object of a transitive verb in the infinitive mood often precedes the verb, and in this case it is (not in the genitive, as in the last rule, but) in the accusative; as, *agus iseaḡ do ḡnioḡ, da cuaille do cur i d-talmain agus ceann an t-snáite do ceanḡal da ḡaḡ cuaille ḡioḡ, agus uballḡo cur air mullaḡ cuaille aca*, “and it is what he used to do, *two poles to put* in the earth, and *the end of a thread to tie* to each pole of them, and *an apple to put* on the top of a pole of them.”

17. The active participle of a transitive verb governs the noun which is the object of the action, in the genitive case; as $\Delta\zeta$ $\text{brui}\check{\text{c}}\text{ne}\Delta\text{o}\ \Delta\text{n}\ \acute{\text{o}}\text{i}\text{r}$, “smelting the gold” (lit. “smelting of the gold”); $\text{do}\ \acute{\text{b}}\text{i}\ \Delta\text{n}\ \zeta\Delta\text{o}\check{\text{o}}\Delta\text{l}\ \text{ro}\ \Delta\zeta\ \text{m}\acute{\text{u}}\text{n}\Delta\text{o}\ \text{scol}$, “this Gaodhal was teaching schools” (lit. “teaching of schools”); $\Delta\zeta\ \text{to}\check{\text{c}}\Delta\text{i}\text{l}\text{t}\ \text{n}\Delta\ \text{t}\Delta\text{lman}$, “digging the ground.”

18. The verb *is* in any of its forms expressed or understood, takes the accusative form of a personal pronoun as its nominative; as $\text{is}\ \acute{\text{i}}\ \text{c}\acute{\text{e}}\Delta\text{o}\text{f}\Delta\text{o}\ \text{droinge}\ \text{re}\ \text{seancus}$, “*it* is the opinion of some historians;” $\text{is}\ \text{mic}\ \text{ri}\check{\text{g}}\ \zeta\text{o}\ \text{f}\text{i}\text{rinne}\Delta\text{c}\ \text{i}\Delta\text{o}$, “*they* are truly sons of a king;” $\Delta\zeta\text{us}\ \text{f}\text{i}\Delta\text{f}\text{ra}\text{i}\check{\text{g}}\text{e}\Delta\text{s}\ \Delta\text{n}\ \text{ri}\check{\text{g}}\ \text{c}\text{i}\Delta\ \text{h}\text{-i}\Delta\text{o}\ \text{f}\acute{\text{e}}\text{i}\text{n}$, “and the king asks who *they* (are).”

19. The verb *is* is very often omitted, especially in negative and interrogative sentences, and in answers to questions; as $\text{be}\Delta\check{\text{c}}\Delta\ \Delta\text{n}\ \text{st}\Delta\text{ra}\text{i}\check{\text{o}}\text{e}\ \text{f}\text{i}\text{rinne}$, “truth (is) the food of the historian;” $\text{ce}\Delta\text{nn}\ \text{O}\text{h}\text{i}\Delta\text{rmu}\text{o}\Delta\ \text{U}\text{i}\ \text{O}\text{h}\text{u}\text{i}\check{\text{o}}\text{ne}\ \Delta\text{n}\ \text{ce}\Delta\text{nn}\ \acute{\text{u}}\text{o}$, “that head (is) the head of Diarmaid O’Duibhne;” $\text{c}\text{i}\Delta\ \text{t}\text{us}\Delta\text{?}\ \text{m}\text{i}\text{s}\text{i}\ \text{i}\text{o}\text{l}\text{l}\Delta\text{n}$, “who (art) thou? I (am) Iollan;” $\Delta\text{n}\ \text{f}\acute{\text{i}}\text{o}\text{r}\ \text{s}\text{i}\text{n}$, “whether (is) that true?” $\text{n}\acute{\text{i}}\ \text{m}\text{i}\text{s}\text{i}$, “(it is) not I.”

20. A verb in the passive voice takes the accusative form of a personal pronoun as its nominative; as $\text{b}\acute{\text{e}}\Delta\text{n}\text{t}\Delta\text{r}\ \acute{\text{e}}$, it is done; $\text{bu}\Delta\text{i}\text{l}\text{t}\text{e}\Delta\text{r}\ \text{i}\Delta\text{o}$ they are struck.

CHAPTER VII.

PREPOSITIONS.

1. A simple preposition governs the dative (including the ablative, for which there is no distinct

inflection); as *ḡáinic sé zo corcaig*, he came *to Cork*; *as cois an t-sléibhe*, at the foot of the mountain; *airmho cuib do na h-úgḡaraidb*, “some of *the authors* reckon.” (See next rule for exception.)

2. The preposition *uir* generally governs the accusative in the singular, and the dative in the plural; as *uir corcaḡ agus luimneḡ*, between Cork and Limerick; *uir na cóigeadḡaidb*, “between the provinces.”

3. The prepositions *ann*, *zo*, *iar*, *ria*, *le* or *re*, and *tar*, take *s* before *an*, the article, the *p* being sometimes joined with the preposition and sometimes with the article; as *anns an leabḡar* or *ann san leabḡar*, in the book; *leis an b-fear*, with the man. (See par. 7, page 17.)

4. The compound prepositions govern their nouns in the genitive; as *do ruḡ an tonna ris a n-aḡaidb an cnuic*, “he brought the tun with him *against the hill*”; *a b-fiaḡnuise b-fear n-eirionn*, “*in presence of the men of Erin*”; *do ḡluaiseadḡar clann tuireann rompa d’ionnsuidhe an cḡḡa*, “the children of Tuireann went forwards *towards the battle*.”

The following prepositions, *cum*, towards; *dála*, as to; *déir*, after; *iomtusá*, as to; *measḡ* or *ameasḡ*, amongst; *réir*, according to; and *timcioll*, about, although having the form of simple prepositions, are in reality compound, and take their nouns in the genitive. See end of Par. 3, p. 88.

As a compound preposition consists of a noun governed by a simple preposition, it is in reality the noun-part of the compound preposition that governs the noun in the genitive, in accordance with Rule 1, page 95: thus the expression above, a *n-aḡaidb an cnuic*, is literally “in the face of the hill,” where *cnuic* is governed in the genitive by *aḡaidb*, face; and so of the others.

5. The simple prepositions, except *do*, *de*, *zan*, and *uir*, generally cause eclipsis in singular nouns when the article is used; as *ó’n ḡ-cnoc sin*, “from

that hill;" ag an m-baile na h-inse siar, "at the town of the island in the west." (See pages 17, 18.)

6. The simple prepositions generally cause aspiration when the article is not expressed; as ΔΙΡ ὝΔΡΡ ΑΝ ḲΡΟΙΝΝ, "on the top of the tree;" Ó ΜÚΡΑΙḲ ΝΑ ΤΕΔΜΡΑḲ, "from the ramparts of Tara."

Exception 1: Δ or Ι, ΙΔΡ, and ζο (when it means "with") cause eclipsis without the article; as Δ m-ḲΑΙΛΕ ΔḲΔ CΛΙΑḲ, in Baile-atha-cliath (Dublin); ΙΔΡ n-ḲÍΛΙΝΝ, "after the deluge."

Exception 2: Δζ, Ιε, and sometimes ζο, cause no change in the initial, and ζΑΝ may either aspirate or not; as slÁN Ιε ΜΑΙζ, "farewell to (the river) Maigue;" ο'Ν τ-SIONUINN SOIR ζΟ ΦΑΙΡΡζε, "from the Shannon east to the sea."

7. When a simple preposition ending in a vowel comes before the possessive Δ (whether it signifies *his*, *her*, or *their*), the letter n is inserted between the vowels; as τρε n-Δ ḲΑΣΑΙḲ, "*through his* hands;" ΑΝ Ιά ζο n-Δ ΙάΝ τ-soillse, "*the day with its* abundant light."

Except after ḲΟ and ḲΕ; as τΑḲΑΙΡ ΦÉΥΡ Ḳ'Á ḲΑΡΑΛΛ give grass to his horse; ḲΑΙΝ ζΕΥζ Ḳ'Á ζ-CRANN, take a branch from their tree.

Before any other word beginning with a vowel, the letter h is usually inserted after these prepositions; as ḲΟ ḲΥΑΙḲ se ζο h-ΑΙḲΑΙΝ, he went to Alban (Scotland).

PART IV.

IDIOMS.

An idiom, in the sense in which it is used here, may be defined:—An expression that has acquired by usage a certain meaning, which becomes lost in a word-for-word translation into another language. so that in order to convey the true meaning in that other language, the form of expression must be changed.

Thus, “*ṡÁ AN LEABHAR AG AN DUINE*” is an idiom, for its sense is lost in the word-for-word translation, “the book is at the man;” and in order to convey the true meaning, the English expression must be changed to “the man has the book.”

Idioms constitute one of the chief difficulties in learning any language; and the student is recommended to master this Part, in which the principal idioms of the Irish language are explained and illustrated.

1. The Infinitive governing Possessive Pronouns.

The infinitive of a transitive verb governs its object in the genitive (Syntax, Rule 15, p. 112). When the object, instead of being a noun, is a personal pronoun, then, according to the analogy of the Rule quoted, it should be in the genitive case. But the genitive of a personal pronoun is a possessive pronoun; and possessive pronouns precede the words they refer to; so that the pronoun which represents the object of the action, is a possessive, and precedes the infinitive, influencing its initial as if it were a noun (see Syntax, p. 106, Rules 3, 4, 5). This gives rise to idiomatic expressions like the following, which are of very frequent occurrence.

English.	Irish.	Contracted to.	
To strike	me,	ṡO MO BUALAṡ,	ṡOM' BUALAṡ.
	thee,	ṡO ṡO BUALAṡ,	ṡOṡ' BUALAṡ.
	him,	ṡO A BUALAṡ,	ṡÁ BUALAṡ.
	her,	ṡO A BUALAṡ,	ṡÁ BUALAṡ.
	us,	ṡO ÁR m-BUALAṡ,	ṡÁR m-BUALAṡ.
	you,	ṡO BUIR m-BUALAṡ,	(not contracted)
	them,	ṡO A m-BUALAṡ,	ṡÁ m-BUALAṡ.

These may be translated literally, “to my striking,” “to their striking,” &c.

A like construction prevails in the case of a transitive participle: $\Delta\zeta$ Δ $\text{bua}\lambda\alpha\text{o}$, striking him: $\Delta\zeta$ Δ $\text{bua}\lambda\alpha\text{o}$, striking her: $\Delta\zeta$ $\acute{\alpha}\text{n}$ $\text{m-bua}\lambda\alpha\text{o}$, striking us, &c. In this construction the participle may itself be governed in the genitive case by a noun:— $\text{t}\acute{\alpha}\text{i}\text{n}\text{i}\text{c}$ $\text{m}\acute{\iota}\alpha\text{n}$ Δ $\text{ma}\text{r}\text{b}\acute{o}\text{c}\Delta$ $\text{o}\acute{\alpha}\text{m}$ $\text{f}\acute{\epsilon}\text{i}\text{n}$, “a desire to kill them, has come to me” (lit. “a desire of the killing of them,” or “of their killing.”)

2. Compound Prepositions governing Possessive Pronouns.

A compound preposition governs the genitive (Rule 4, p. 14); and when the governed word is not a noun but a personal pronoun, this last becomes a possessive, and goes before the noun-part of the compound preposition, giving rise to idiomatic phrases, corresponding with those quoted in last Idiom. Example: $\Delta\text{i}\text{r}$ son , for the sake of; $\Delta\text{i}\text{r}$ Δ son , for his sake; $\Delta\text{i}\text{r}$ bur son , for your sake, &c. Do cuairo Diarmaid $\text{o}\acute{\alpha}$ $\text{h-}\acute{\epsilon}\text{i}\text{s}$, Diarmaid went after her: $\text{t}\acute{\alpha}\text{i}\text{n}\text{i}\text{c}$ tinneas orra $\text{f}\acute{\epsilon}\text{i}\text{n}$, $\Delta\zeta\text{us}$ Δr Δ $\text{slioc}\acute{\tau}$ $\text{'n-}\Delta$ $\text{n-o}\acute{\alpha}\text{i}\text{o}$. “sickness came upon themselves, and on their posterity after them.”

A similar construction often occurs with the compound adverbs. Example: tar $\Delta\text{i}\text{s}$, backwards; do cuairo $\text{s}\acute{\epsilon}$ tar Δ $\Delta\text{i}\text{s}$, he went backwards; do cuairo $\text{s}\acute{\imath}$ tar Δ $\text{h-}\Delta\text{i}\text{s}$, she went backwards; do cuairo siao tar Δ $\text{n-}\Delta\text{i}\text{s}$, they went backwards, &c.

3. To die.

“To die,” is very often expressed in Irish by a phrase meaning “to find death:” the verb $\text{f}\Delta\zeta$, find, being used for this purpose, in its various forms; as, an dara bliagain dá éis sin fuair Irial bás, “the second year after that Irial *found death*,” $\Delta\zeta\text{us}$ $\text{m}\acute{\alpha}\text{s}$ Δnn $\Delta\text{t}\acute{\alpha}$ Δ $\text{n-o}\acute{\alpha}\text{n}$ $\text{o}\acute{\alpha}\text{m}$ $\text{b}\acute{\alpha}\text{s}$ $\text{o'f}\Delta\zeta\text{a}\text{i}\text{l}$, “and if it be here that it is in fate for me death to find” (i. e., “that it is fated for me to die.”)

There is, however, a single verb $\text{o'eu}\zeta$, meaning to die, but it is not used so often as the above. The following example exhibits both forms:— Δ deir cuir do na $\text{sean-u}\acute{\sigma}\text{oara}\text{i}\text{o}$ sur Δb Δ $\text{n}\acute{\zeta}\text{leann}$ $\text{o}\acute{\alpha}$ $\text{lo}\acute{\alpha}$ fuair naom $\text{p}\acute{\alpha}\text{o-rui}\zeta$ $\text{b}\acute{\alpha}\text{s}$; bioo go $\text{n-abra}\text{i}\text{o}$ $\text{o}\text{run}\zeta$ oile surab Δnn

Ardmača d'eug sé, "some of the old authors say that it is in Glendalough St. Patrick found death, although another party say that it is in Armagh he died."

4. Nominative Absolute.

What is called the nominative absolute in English is expressed in Irish by the preposition *air* (on), or *iar* (after), placed before the participle, and the preposition *do* (to) before the noun; which will be understood from the following examples:—*ar m-beiċ aċa ġada do Chormac ag a ħ-feiċiom*, "Cormac, having been a long time watching them" (lit. "on being a long time to Cormac a-watching of them"); *agus air m-beiċ ollam don luing*, "and the ship being ready" (lit. "and on being ready to the ship"); *agus air n-dul a luing dóib*, "and they having gone into a ship:" (lit. "and on going into a ship to them"); *iar m-beiċ tréan is an tír dóib*, "they having grown strong in the country" (lit. "after being strong in the country to them").

5. To have no help for a thing.

The Irish phrase corresponding to this is "to have no strength (*neart*) on a thing:" the "having" being expressed in accordance with Idiom 34, p. 130. *Ní ħ -fuil neart agum air an níġ sin*, I have no help for that thing—I cannot help that (lit. "there is to me no strength on that thing"), *agus a duġairt Gráinne naċ raib neart aice féin air*, "and Grainne said that she had no help for it" (or "could not help it," "could not have prevented it"). Sometimes *léiġeas*, remedy or cure, is used in the same way as *neart*.

6. To cause a thing to be done.

To cause a thing to be done, to have it done, to see that it is done, to order it to be done, is often expressed in Irish by *do ċur* (or *do ċabairt*) *fá deara*, "to put (or bring, or give), under notice." *Agus ro ċuir Míodhach fa n-deara uir Inse Tuile do ċur fúib*, "and Miodhach caused the mould (or soil) of Inis Tuile to be placed under you:" *do rug (ríġ) breac báis air an m-breiċeam, agus ċug fa deara a ċroċaġ* "the king), passed sentence of death on the judge, and had him hanged" ("put under notice him to hang," or "his hanging").

7. Number of individuals of which a company is composed.

The number of individuals of which any collection of persons or things is made up, is often inserted, in the nominative form, in a narrative sentence, without any syntactical connexion with the rest of the sentence. *ΔΥΣ ΤΑΙΝΙC ΛΙΡ ΡΟΙΜΕ ΑΡΝΑΜΑΡΑC, CΑΟΖΑΤ CΑΙΡΡΤΕΑC, Ο ΣΗΙΟC ΒΟΥΒΟ ΔΕΙΡΖ*, “and Lir set out on the morrow, fifty chariot-men, from Shee Bove Derg” (i.e., with fifty chariots): *ΔΥΣ ΤΑΙΝΙC ΒΟΥΒΟ ΔΕΑΡΖ, ΝΑΟΙ CΕΑΘ ΠΙCΤΕΑΘ, ΘΑ Ν-ΙΟΝΝΣΥΓΕ*; “and Bove Derg came, twenty-nine hundred men, towards them.”

This is like the English:—“The duke began his march next morning, 20,000 strong.”

8. Passive Verbs used impersonally.

A passive verb is often used impersonally; as *ΖΑΒΡΑ CΥΓΑΙΝΝ ΑΜΑC, ΔΥΣ ΝΙ ΛΑΜΠΑΡ ΦΥΛΙΥΖΑΘ ΟΡC*, “come forth to us and no one will dare to wound thee:” (literally, “and *it will not be dared* [to put] wounding on thee”).

This form of expression is of very frequent occurrence in the older narrative writings:—thus instead of “they advance; they plunge into the (river) Crond,” the writer expresses himself in this way:—“it is advanced; it is plunged into the Crond.”

9. Nominatives before Infinitives and Participles.

Instead of the usual assertive construction, consisting of a verb with its nominative (noun or pronoun), the following construction is often adopted:—the verb is put in the infinitive or participial form, and the subject (whether noun or personal pronoun) is placed before it, the pronoun being in the accusative form (but whether the noun is nominative or accusative cannot be determined, as there is no distinction of form); as *ΙC ΑΜΛΑΙΘ ΒΙ ΝΑΙCΙ ΔΥC ΔΕΙΡΘΡΕ, ΔΥC ΑΝ CΕΝΝCΑΙΜ ΕCΑΡΡΑ, ΔΥC ΙΑΘ ΔΖ ΙΜΙΡC ΥΙΡΡΕ*, “it is in this manner Naisi and Deirdre were (seated), and the Cenn-chaimh (a chess board) between them, *and they playing on it*; *ΙC ΑΜΛΑΙΘ ΘΟ ΒΙ CΟΒΘCΑC, ΔΥC Ε ΔΖ ΣΕΑΡΖΑΘ*, “it is thus Cobhthach was, *and he pining away*,” *CUIΡΙΟC ΣCΕΥΛΑ ΖΟ ΒΛΑCΤΝΥΘ Ε ΦΕΙΝ ΘΟ ΒΕΙC ΑΝΝ ΣΙΝ*, “he sends word to Blaid, *he himself to be there*” (i.e., “that he himself was there”).

This form of expression is often adopted even when the verb or participle is (not expressed but) understood; as *DO CUIR* (*AN CÚ*) *A CEANN A N-UCC* *DIARMAIDA AGUS É MA CÒDLA* “(the hound) put her head in the breast of Diarmaid, *and he in his sleep.*”

10. One person meeting another.

“Donall met Fergus” is often expressed in Irish in the following way:—*DO CASAÐ FERGUS AIR DOMNALL*; literally “Fergus was met (or turned) on Donall.” *DO CASAÐ AOIBELL NA CRAIGE LÉICE ORUINN*, “we met Eevel of Craglea” (lit. “Eevel of Craglea was met [or turned] on us”): *CIA CASFAIDHE ORM ACT SCUIADH-BEAN*, “whom should I meet but the fair woman” (“who should be met on me”).

The same idea is expressed by the verb *ṡARLA*, happened: *AGUS ṡÁRLA OGLAC ORRṡA AR M-BOṡAC*, “and they met a youth on the moor” (lit. “and a youth happened on [or to] them”): *ṡRIALLUṡO ṡO SLIAṡO MIS ṡO ṡṡÁRLA BANBA ṡO N-A DRADHICṡO ORRA ANN*, “they travel to Slieve Mish until they met Banba with her druids there” (“until Banba with her druids happened on[or to] them there”).

11. Although: Although not.

ṡION ṡO or *ṡION ṡUP* has two opposite meanings which can only be distinguished by the general sense of the passage: sometimes it means “although” (or “although that”), and sometimes “although not.”

Although:—*A FHINN, AP ORṡAR, ṡION ṡUR FOIGRE MO ṡAOL DUITSE NÁ DO DHIAMUṡO O'DHUIBHNE*, “‘O Finn,’ says Oscar, ‘although my relationship with thee is nearer than to Diarmaid O’Duibhne.’”

Although not:—*DO BÉRUIM CÒMAIRLE MAIC DÍṡ, A CHLAINN UISNIG, ṡION ṡO N-DÉNTAR LÍṡ Í*, “I shall give a good counsel to you, O sons of Usna, though it will not be done by you;” *ṡION ṡUR CÉARRṡO MNÁ AN NÍṡ SIN*, “*although* that proceeding would *not* be the business of a woman.”

12. To be able.

To be able to do a thing is expressed in different ways. The most usual is by phrases of the type, *IS FÉIRIR LE*, “it is possible with;” as *IS FÉIRIR LIOM A DÉANADH*, I can do it (lit. “it is possible with me to do it:” see Idiom 1.)

Another, and more idiomatic way, is by the verb *tigim*. “I

come," in its various moods and tenses; and with this verb "I can do," or "I am able to do," is expressed by "it comes with me to do;" as *muna ð-tigeað̃ ris an cailleac̃ ð'amas*, "unless he would be able to strike the hag" (lit. "unless it would come with him the hag to strike"); *ac̃t nios ðoilge rinn má sin mar ac̃aio ár ð-trí féinnib̃ ceangailte már ð-fiaðnuise*, *agus nac̃ ð-tig̃ rinn sgaioleað̃ ðioð̃*, "and we think more grievous than that, how our three champions are bound in our presence, and that we are not able to free them:" *ní cuireann ualaç̃ orrarnn nac̃ ð-tig̃ linn a iomçar*, "he puts not a burden on us that we are not able to bear."

Sometimes the verb *ac̃a* or *is* is used instead of *tig̃*, and also the preposition *as* instead of *le*; as *ó nac̃ liom ðul ón s-conc̃ab̃airc̃ so*, "since I cannot escape from this danger" ("since it is not with me to go from this danger:" here *is* is understood): *ó nac̃ ð-fuil ðul uar̃o asum*, "since I cannot escape from him" ("since it is not with me to go from him:" here *ac̃a* and *as* are used, as in "possession:" Idiom 34.

13. One of a pair.

One of a pair is often expressed by the word *leac̃*, half: *leac̃-cos*, one foot (lit. half-foot). In this compound the word *leac̃* is used adjectively, so that *leac̃-cos* means, not half of a foot, but a *half-foot* (i.e., a foot which is itself a half, i.e., half of a pair). So also *leac̃-súil*, one eye, *leac̃-taoð̃*, one side, &c. *is amlaio ðo ði an rig̃ sin agus leac̃-lam̃ airg̃io air*, "it is thus that king was, and one hand of silver on him."

14. To be alone.

The word *aonap*, which the dictionaries now interpret as meaning "alone," was originally a concrete numeral noun like *triur*, *cúigear*, &c. (p. 39), and meant "one person;" and this meaning it retains to some extent in its present application:—*ðo siub̃al mé a'm aonar*, I walked alone (lit. "I walked in my one person" [see Idiom 42]: or "I walked as one person"); *ðo siub̃al tú að' aonar*, thou walkedst alone: *ðo siub̃al sí n-a h-aonar*, "she walked alone," &c.; *am aonap seal a siub̃al ðr̃oas*, "alone, of a time, walking I was."

Another way of saying in Irish "he is alone" is "he is with himself:" *ac̃a mé liom féin*, I am alone ("I am with myself"): *ac̃a tú leac̃ féin*, thou art alone: *ac̃a siað leo féin*, they are alone: *ac̃a mo máic̃rín 'n-a coðlað̃*, *agus mise liom féin*, "my mother is asleep, and I am alone."

15. One thing given for another.

When you give or take, sell or buy, one thing for another, it is expressed in Irish by saying you give it, &c, *on* that other, the preposition **AIR** being used. **DO** **CUIS** **SÉ** **TRÍ** **BA** **AIR** **AN** **Ṣ-CAPALL** **SIN**, he gave three cows for that horse: **AIR** **EIRE** **NÍ** **'NEÓSAINN** **CIA** **H-Í**, “for Erin I would not tell who she is” (**'NEÓSAINN** for **inneósainn**: see p. 63).

In this sense, the preposition **AIR** is set before the noun of price: **DO** **CEANNUIGEAS** **AN** **BÓ** **BÁN** **SIN** **AIR** **SÉ** **PÚINT**, I bought that white cow for six pounds: **NÍ** **H-IONGNA** **AR** **CORMAC**, **ÓIR** **IS** **MAIC** **AN** **LUAC** **TUGAS** **UIRRE**, “‘No wonder,’ says Cormac, ‘for good is the price I gave for it.’”

16. Debt.

The fact that Donall owes Fergus money, or that Donall is under any obligation to pay money to Fergus, is expressed by saying, “Fergus has money on Donall,” the preposition **AIR** being used before the name of the debtor, and the act of “having” being expressed by **TA** and **AS** as in Idiom 34. **TA** **TRÍ** **PÚINT** **AS** **FERGUS** **AIR** **DOMNALL**, Donall owes three pounds to Fergus: **TA** **BEAN** **EILE** **A** **N-EÓCAILL** **A** **B-FUIL** **AICI** **CORÓIN** **AIR**, there is another woman in Youghal to whom he owes a crown” (“to whom is a crown on him”): **IS** **AMLAIO** **DO** **BÍ** **AN** **RÍ** **SO**, **ASUS** **CÍOS** **CÁM** **MÓR** **TROM** **AS** **FOMORAIG** **AR** **TUAÇA** **DE** **DANANN** **RE** **N-A** **LINN**, “it is how this king was, and (that) the Fomorians had a great heavy tribute and rule over the Tuatha De Dananns during his time” (“a great heavy tribute and rule was with the Fomorians on the Tuath De Dananns”).

17. Asking, entreating, &c.

To ask, request, entreat, or demand of a person, is expressed by “to ask, &c, *on* that person:” **IARR** **AIR** **OHIA** **NA** **GRÁSA** **SIN**, “ask of God those graces.”

18. Sensation, suffering, &c.

That a person is hungry, thirsty, cold, afraid, sick, &c, is expressed in Irish by saying that hunger, thirst, cold, fear, sickness, &c, is *on* him, the preposition **AIR** being used: **TA** **FUAČT** **ORM** (cold is on me), I am cold; **NÁ** **BÍO** **EAGLA** **ORT** (let not fear be on thee) be not afraid: **DO** **BÍ** **TART** **MÓR** **AIR** **SHEA-ḠAN** (great thirst was on John), John was very thirsty: **CAO**

É SIN ORT? (what is that on thee?) what ails you? A cúisle mo croidhe creud í an ġruaim sin ort? “O pulse of my heart, what is that frown on thee?”

19. One person entertaining feelings (of love, hatred, &c.) towards another.

That Donall entertains certain feelings towards Fergus is expressed by saying that Donall *has* such feelings *on* Fergus; the preposition AIR being used before “Fergus,” and the act of “having” being expressed by TÁ and AS, as in idiom 34:—ní mó an cion ro bá AS Aonghus ortsa ná an cion ro bá AS muintir Aonghusa ar mac an reáctaire, so raib formaó mór ar t’áitir fá n-a cionn sin, “not greater was the affection Aonghus felt for thee than the affection the people of Aonghus felt for the son of the steward, so that thy father felt great jealousy on that account” (lit. “not greater was the affection which was with Aonghus on thee, so that great jealousy was on thy father on the head of that:” see Idiom 32).

Where the agent is not specified, a similar form of expression is retained: you are loved, is expressed by love is on you: you are esteemed, by estimation is on you, &c.: TÁ meas ASUS cion mór AIR OSCAR (great esteem and love are on Oscar), Oscar is greatly *esteemed and loved*.

20. To know : to know a person.

To know is usually expressed in Irish by the phrase knowledge is with me, I have knowledge; and to know a person by “to have or to give knowledge on a person:” “ASUS an b-fuil a fios ASAD féin, a Fhinn?” ‘ní b-fuil,’ ar Fionn:” “‘do you know it, O Finn?’ ‘I do not,’ says Finn” (lit., is its knowledge with you, O Finn? It is not, says Finn): an áil leat fios o’fáil? do you wish to know? (“is it a desire with you knowledge to get?”): bíod a fios ASAT, a leuġtoir, “know O reader” (“be its knowledge with thee, O reader”): (strangers are seen coming towards Finn and his party), ro fiafraġ, Fionn do cáic an o-tuġad-ar aicne orrta, “Finn asked of the others did they know them” (lit. “did they put knowledge on them”): ASUS tu-ġaisse aicne orm, “and thou knewest me” (lit. “and thou didst put knowledge on me”).

21. To part from, to separate from.

To separate from a person is expressed in Irish by “to separate *with* a person,” the preposition **le** or **re** being used: much in the same manner as we say in English, “I parted with him:” **SCARAÐAR féin agus Diarmaid re n-a céile**, “they themselves and Diarmaid separated from each other:” **DO SCAR sé rinn**, “he separated from us;” **SCAR OSCAR le Diarmaid**, “Oscar separated from Diarmaid:” **DO SCAR RIR**, “he separated from him;” **AS CURRAC CILL’-DARA DO SCARAS le GRAÐ mo CROÍDE**, “at the Curragh of Kildare I parted from the ‘love of my heart.’ ”

22. However great, however good, however brave, &c.

DA placed before some abstract nouns gives a meaning which, though it is well understood in practical use, has puzzled grammarians to analyse and explain, and which will be best understood by a few examples. From the adjective **ÁLAINN**, fine or beautiful, is formed **ÁILNE** or **ÁILLE**, fineness, beauty; and **DA ÁILNE** or **DA ÁILLE**, means “however fine,” “how fine soever.” Examples:—**NÍ b-fuil pionús DA méud, NAĆ b-tuillro**, “there is no punishment however great that they do not deserve:” **AN TREAS ġeis, SAN COMRAS AOINFIR DA ċRÉISI AIR TALMÁIN b’OBAD**, “the third injunction, not to refuse single combat to any man on earth, however mighty:” **DEAMÁN NÁ DIABAL DA ċRÉISE LÁM**, “demon or devil, however mighty of hand.”

23. Both one and another: both these and those.

Both, in such phrases as “both men and women,” is often expressed in Irish by the preposition **ROIR**, between; as **BAINFRÓ DIA SÁSAM ROIB ANN ġAC SOċAR b’Á b-tuġ ROIB ROIR ċeill, CEADFAċOIB, agus CONAC ŠAOġALTA**, “God will exact an account from them in every advantage He has given to them *between* understanding, senses, and worldly prosperity:” **CÚġ mile ROIR FEARAIB agus mnÁIB**, five thousand, between men and women (i.e. both men and women, or reckoning men and women).

24. To overtake.

To overtake a person is often expressed by “to bear on a person,” the verb **beir**, bear, being used with the preposition

AIR. Examples:—**FÁGBAM AN TULAC SO AR EAGLA GO m-BEARFAÖ AONGUS AN BHROGA ORRUINN**, “let us leave this hill for fear that Aonghus of the Brugh would overtake us:” **LEANUS AIR A LORG GO RÉIMÖÍREAC IAD DO’N MhúMAIN**, **GO RUÖ ORRA AS SOLCÓIO**, “he follows them on their track directly to Munster, so that he overtook them at Solchoid.” **GO NAÖ FÚSGFIOIR AN Fonn SIN NÖ GO m-BEIREAÖ MARCRA SIÖE ORRA**, “that they might not leave that territory till the fairy cavalcade should overtake them:” **FANFAÖRA LEAT AR AN LÁÖAIR SO NÖ GO m-BEIRIR ORM ARÍS**, “I will wait for thee at this place till thou overtake me again:” **ÖAC AON AIR A m-BÉARFPAINNSI**, “every one whom I would overtake” (“every one on whom I would bear”).

25. To win a game on a person.

To win a game on a person is expressed by “to put a game on him:” **ASUS DO ÖÖÖ OISÍN AN FEAR SIN, ASUS RO ÖUIR AN cluicÖe AR Fhionn**, “and Oisín moved that (chess-) man and won a game on Finn:” **ASUS NÍ RUÖAMAR AN BÁIRE AR A ÖÉILE**, “and we did not win the goal on each other” (i.e. neither of us won the goal on the other.)

26. To think long, short, well of, ill of: to think hot, cold, hateful, &c.

Such phrases as “it seemed long to him,” “he thought it long,” are expressed by the verb **is** and the preposition **le**: **is FADA LIOM** (“it is long with me”), it seems long to me, I think it long. **ASUS DO BO FADA LE NA ÖRÁICRIÖ DO ÖI ÖRIAN UACÖA**, “and his brothers thought it long that Brian was away from them” (“it was long with his brothers, &c.”): **is OLC LINN AR ÖEAN RIÖÖ**, “we think bad of what has happened to thee” (“it is evil with us:” **AR = A RO**, and **A** means “all that:” see p. 47): **tuÖimsi NAÖ ionmúin leatÖa me féin**, “I understand that thou dost not love me” (“that not beloved with thee am I myself”).

Observe the difference in meaning conveyed by the two prepositions **le** and **do**: **is maic Ö do’n Ö-fear sin**, it is advantageous to that man (whether he thinks it so or not): **is maic Ö leÖ sin**, that man thinks it advantageous (whether it is really so or not). The following example shows both forms:—**ba maic liom siubail acÖ nior maic Öam é**, I wished to walk, but it was not good for me.

27. To wish for: to like: to be glad of: to prefer.

After the same manner, a desire, wish, liking for, &c, is expressed by such words as *mian*, desire; *ait*, pleasure; *áil*, will or pleasure, &c.: is *áill liom fios o'fáíl*, I wish to know ("it is a desire with me knowledge to get"): *do cuirfinn féin súil an áit sin do h-úct a n-ionad do súl, ar fear díob: do b'ait liom sin, ar an dóirseoir*, "I would put the eye of that cat in thy lap in place of thy eye," says a man of them. 'I would like that,' says the door-keeper."

The word *feárr*, better, is used in the same way to express preference: is *féarr liom do dhearbáchair ná túsa*, I prefer thy brother to thyself: I would rather have thy brother than thyself (lit. "thy brother is better with me," &c); *do b'féarr le Brígid leabhar maic ná airgead*, Brigid would prefer a good book to money (lit. "a good book would be better with Brigid," &c). The following example shows the application of both *mian* and *pféárr*:— *ní h-é is mian leis an ugdar (ní mo, ní h-é is mian liom-sa) tu do breugan; áct is é do b' féárr leis sin (agus liom-sa) do croíde do seilbúgadh*: "it is not what the author wishes (neither is it my wish) to amuse thee (tu do breugan) but it is what he would prefer (and I also) to possess thy heart."

Féárr followed by *le* expresses mental preference as shown above: but *feárr* followed by *do* is equivalent to the English expression "better for," "better that," &c. Is *féarr domsa anois, ar Lugh, fios na h-earca úd do tabairt daoib*. Is *féarr ceana, ar iadsan*, " 'it is *better for me* now,' says Lugh, 'a knowledge of that *eric* (fine) to give you.' 'It is better indeed,' say they."

28. To think little of—much of—to grudge.

Similar to the preceding is the use of the words *beag* and *mór* (little and much) in several idiomatic phrases, which occur very frequently, and which will be best understood by the following examples:—Is *mór liom an luach sin*, I think that price large ("that price is large with me"): *óir dá m-beic mac aguinne iona súide rompa, níor beag leo do cúis dár marbadh é*, "for if (even) a child of us would be sitting ("in his sitting:" see Idiom 42) before them, they would not deem it (too) little cause to kill us" (lit. "it would not be with them a small [thing] for a cause to kill us:" for *dár marbadh*: see Idiom 1): *dár mo briatar ar*

NAISI NÍ BEḠ LINNE SIN UAIṚ, “‘by my word’ says Naisi, ‘we do not think that small from thee.’”

The two expressions *is mór le* and *ní beḡ le* (it is much with, it is not little with) are used to express the idea of unwillingness or grudging: *is móp liom don pínḡín do ḡab-airc do*, I think it much—I grudge—to give one penny to him: the very same idea is expressed by *ní beḡ liom don pínḡín*, &c., I think it not little—I grudge—one penny, I think one penny enough, &c. The two reverse expressions (*ní mór le*—*is beḡ le*) are used to express willingness—not grudging, &c.: *ní mór liom na trí ba so do ḡab-airc doó*, I do not think it much—I am quite willing—I do not grudge—to give him these three cows; which might also be expressed by saying, *is beḡ liom*, &c.—I think it little—I would give more, I would have more, I would want more; I am willing—I do not grudge, &c.—*do beirmíó ár m-briacár, ár siabó, nac beḡ linn a m-beuram go Fionn diobó*, “‘we give our word,’ said they ‘we think it not small—we grudge—what (a = all that: see p. 47) we shall bring of them to Finn.’” (See Mr. Standish O’Grady’s note, in the “Pursuit of Diarmaid and Grainne,” p. 140.)

When *mór* and *beḡ* are used with the preposition *do*, they give the idea of enough or not enough *for* a person: *níor beḡ do (marbábó báir n-aircraó) mar eiric uaiópe*, (the killing of your fathers) is not small to him—is enough for him—should suffice for him—as an *eric* (fine) from you: *níor beḡ duit a ba do breic ó Fhionn*, “it was not little for you—it was enough for you—to take away his cows from Finn.”

29. Woe to.

Is mairḡ don b-fear sin, woe to that man: *a mairḡ do’n drung goireas do’n olc mairḡ*, “woe to those who call evil good.” Expressions of this kind are sometimes elliptical; as, *is mairḡ nac n-beánann comairle beḡ-mná*, “woe [to him] who doeth not the counsel of a good wife” (lit. “it is woe who doeth not,” &c).

30. So . . as: as . . as.

When these “correspondent conjunctions” are expressed in Irish, the second one is usually translated either by *aḡus*, “and,” or by *le*, “with:” *aḡus a dubairt ria an t-an do bíobó a mac com arracáa aḡus go lionfabó a meur an iobó*, “and he said to her when his son should be so grown (*com arracáa*) as that his finger would fill the ring” (lit.

“so grown *and* that his finger,” &c): DO BÍ A sleaḡ cóim reammar le mol mullinn, “his spear was as thick as the shaft of a mill” (lit. “as thick with.”)

Agus follows amlaḡ or amla (thus, so, in this manner), much in the same way as it follows cóim; and in this use it sometimes answers very nearly to “viz.,” AR amlaḡ DO FUAIR NAISI ACAS DÉIRDRE, ACAS AN CENNCHAEMH ETARRA, “it is thus he found Naisi and Déirdre, *and* the *Cenn-chaemh* (a kind of chess-board) between them.” (Meaning, “it was thus he found them, viz., with the *Cenn-chaemh* between them.”)

31. Every other day: every second day: every alternate day.

Phrases like these are often expressed in Irish by the indefinite pronoun gaḡ, followed by the preposition le or re. SAḡ le DOMNAC AS DUL CUM TEAMPOILL, going to the church every other (or every alternate) Sunday: NA TRÍ RÍḡE SIN DO CHUAḢAIB DE DANANN DO BÍ I B-FLACIOS EIREANN SAḡ RE m-bliagáin, “these three kings of the Tuatha De Danann were in the sovereignty of Erin every other year” (i.e. each for a year).

32. The Head.

The word for *head* is used in Irish, as it is in most languages, in a great variety of idiomatic phrases. Some have been already noticed among the compound propositions; and these and others will be understood from the following examples.

A 5-ceann bliadhna, at the end of a year: DO BÍ SIAD A 5-ceann na faicḡe, they were at the end of the field. A DUBAIRT NAISI LE H-ARDAN DUL AIR CÉANN FERḢUIS, “Naisi said to Ardan to go for Fergus” (“to go on the head of Fergus”): FILLSE AIR A 5-ceann, “turn thou back for them” (“on their head”). O NAḡ LIOM DUL ÓN 5-CONḡABAIRḢ SO AM CÉANN, “since I am not able to escape from this danger [that lies] before me” (AM CÉANN, “in my head” = before me). “RACḢAD AD CÉANN, A FHINN, AGUS A 5-ceann na Féinne, “I will go to thee (or before thee), O Finn, and to the Feni” (“in thy head and in the head of the Feni”). ACAS BEIRḢO BUARḢO ACAS BENNAḢḢAIN DÁ CÉNN, “and bear ye victory and blessing on its account” (DÁ CÉNN, “from its head”). TAR CÉANN SUR SAOIL AN TOICEAC NA RAIḢO BAOḢAL AR BIC AR FÉIN, “although the rich man thought that there was no danger at all to (i.e. of) himself” (TAR CÉANN SUR, “over the head that” = although). IS IONGNA DUITSE AN GRAḢO SIN DO

ḌABĀIRT DĀMSA TAR ĊEANN Fhinn, AR DĪARMAID, “‘it is a wonder for thee to give that love to me instead of (to) Finn’ says Diarmaid” (TAR ĊEANN Fhinn, “over the head of Finn,” in preference to Finn, instead of Finn)

33. A proper noun with the genitive of a noun of office.*

When a proper noun is followed by a noun in the genitive signifying a profession, office, trade, or calling, the resulting phrase has a curious idiomatic meaning.

SEAḐAN AN FĪGEADÓRA, which is word for word, “John of the weaver,” means in reality “John (the son, son-in-law, servant, or some other close connection) of the weaver.” SEAḐAN NA BAINTEADĀIGE, “John (the son, &c.) of the widow.”

If, while the proper name is in the nominative, the second noun is also in the nominative, the meaning is quite different, the second noun being then simply in apposition to the first: thus FERḐUS MAOR (nom.) means “Fergus the steward;” but FERḐUS AN MĀOIR (gen.) is “Fergus (the son, &c.) of the steward.”

Suppose, now, you have to express in Irish such a phrase as “the house of Fergus the steward,” in which the proper name must be in the genitive: as the two nouns are in apposition, the second, according to a rule of Syntax (Rule 6, p. 96) should also be in the genitive: TEAC FHERḐUIS AN MĀOIR. But here is an ambiguity; for, according to the present idiom, this expression would also mean “the house of Fergus (the son, &c.) of the steward.” To avoid this ambiguity, a disagreement in case is allowed in such expressions, between the two nouns, when they are in apposition. Thus “the house of Fergus the steward” is TEAC FHERḐUIS MAOR (in which FHERḐUIS is gen. and MAOR nom.); whereas TEAC FHERḐUIS AN MĀOIR is understood to mean “the house of Fergus (the son, &c.) of the steward.” So in Dr. MacHale’s translation of Homer, the first two lines are rendered:—

BRUĊ ACUIL seinn, ÓĪḐ NEAMĊA, A’S BUAN FĒARḐ;

ACUIL mic PEIL, AN ḐAISḐRĊEAC TEINNTEAC ḐARḐ.

“The wrath of Achilles sing, O heavenly virgin, and his enduring anger, of Achilles son of Peleus, *the fiery fierce hero.*”

* The substance of this explanation and the illustrative examples have been taken from an interesting Essay on the present state of the Irish language in Munster, written and sent to the Royal Irish Academy by Mr. John Fleming of Rathgoruiuck,

Here the last noun $\zeta\alpha\iota\sigma\tau\rho\omicron\epsilon\alpha\acute{\varsigma}$, with its two adjectives, is in the nominative, while $\Delta\kappa\upsilon\iota$, with which it is in apposition, is genitive.

In the first example, Rule 7, p. 96, $\text{bean She}\Delta\zeta\alpha\iota\mu \text{ an } \text{f}\acute{\iota}\zeta\epsilon\alpha\upsilon\omicron\text{ra}$, accordingly, is not “the wife of John the weaver,” but “the wife of John (son, &c.) of the weaver;” the wife of John the weaver, would be expressed by $\text{bean She}\Delta\zeta\alpha\iota\mu \text{ f}\acute{\iota}\zeta\epsilon\alpha\upsilon\omicron\text{r}$.

34. Possession.

There is no verb in Irish corresponding to the English verb “to have” as expressing possession; and the sentence “the man has a book,” is expressed in Irish by the verb $\tau\acute{\alpha}$ and the preposition $\Delta\zeta$, in this form, $\tau\acute{\alpha} \text{ le}\alpha\upsilon\text{ar } \Delta\zeta \text{ an } \text{duine}$, “a book is at (or with) the man:” $\tau\acute{\alpha} \text{ air}\zeta\epsilon\alpha\upsilon \Delta\zeta\mu$ (“money is with me”), I have money: $\text{cia } \text{b}\acute{\epsilon} \Delta\zeta \Delta \text{ b}\text{-}\text{fuil air}\zeta\epsilon\alpha\upsilon$ (“whoever with whom is money”), whoever has money. $\text{n}\acute{\imath} \text{ f}\acute{\epsilon}\text{r}\text{o}\text{ir le } \text{duine an n}\text{r}\text{o} \text{ nac m}\text{-}\text{ber}\text{o}\text{e}\Delta\zeta \Delta\zeta\epsilon \text{ do } \text{c}\acute{\alpha}\text{b}\text{airc uair}\text{o}$, $\Delta\zeta\mu \text{ n}\acute{\imath} \text{ b}\text{-}\text{fuil do}\text{-}\text{m}\text{ar}\text{b}\text{c}\acute{\alpha}\text{c}\text{t } \Delta\zeta\mu\text{s}\Delta$, “it is impossible for a man to give away what he does not himself possess, and I do not possess immortality” (word-for-word: “it is not possible for a man the thing which would not be with him to give from him, and not is immortality with myself”). $\text{do } \Delta\zeta\epsilon\text{l } \text{Concub}\text{ar } \text{Borac } \Delta\text{cas do } \text{f}\text{ia}\text{fra}\zeta \text{ d}\acute{\epsilon} \text{ an } \text{raib fle}\text{o} \text{ ollam } \Delta\zeta\epsilon \text{ do}$, “Conchobhar addressed Borach and inquired of him whether he had a feast prepared for him” (lit.: “whether a feast was ready with him [i.e. Borach] for him [i.e. Conchobar.]”)

The use of pronouns in this idiom sometimes gives rise to further idiomatic complications. $\text{Cia } \Delta\zeta\mu\text{ne } \Delta\zeta \Delta \text{ b}\text{-}\text{fuil an } \text{f}\text{irinne?}$ “Which of us has the truth?” This is word for word: “Which of us with whom is the truth?” and the interrogative appears without any government or other syntactical connection. Some good authorities believe that the preposition $\Delta\zeta$ in this construction governs not only the relative Δ , but also, by a sort of attraction, the interrogative cia . $\tau\acute{\alpha} \text{ bean eile } \Delta \text{ n}\text{-}\text{eo}\text{cail } \Delta \text{ b}\text{-}\text{fuil } \Delta\text{ici } \text{cor}\text{o}\text{m air}$, “there is another woman in Youghal who has a crown on him” (i.e. to whom he owes a crown: Idiom 16). Here, also, there is an apparent redundancy, the act of “having” being expressed doubly, namely, both by the relative Δ before $\text{b}\text{-}\text{fuil}$, and by Δici ; and the relative, according to the same authority, would be governed by the preposition $\Delta\zeta$ of Δici . The sentence may be expressed without redundancy in this manner:— $\tau\acute{\alpha} \text{ bean}$

eile a n-**EOCAILL** **AS** a **b-FUIL** **CORÓIN** **AIR**. The last example exactly resembles the English "there is a man in Dublin whom I owe a pound to him:" and perhaps it would be better to consider it, like the English sentence, merely as bad grammar, which is to be avoided by using a different form of expression in the manner shown. The apparent redundancy of the first example, which is from a good authority, cannot, however, be got rid of in this way. So also in, **CIA** **LEIR** **AN** **TEAC** **SIN** (who owns that house), the **le** of **leir** would appear to govern the pronoun with which it is combined, and also the interrogative **CIA**.

35. Ownership.

Ownership is expressed by the verb **is** and the preposition **le**, with: **is leatsa an teac**, "the house belongs to thee" (lit. "it is with thee the house"): **is lem' ačair na ba sin**, those cows belong to my father ("it is with my father those cows"): **CIA léis na ba sin?** who owns those cows? ("who with him [are] those cows?") **Oir is le neac éigin do thuacha de Danann na muca**, "for the pigs belong to some person of the Tuatha De Danann." (A wizard holds a golden branch in his hand, and king Cormac asks him) **an leat féin an craob sin?** "Does that branch belong to thyself?"

Observe the distinction between this idiom and the last in the following sentence:—**Čá airgead go leór asad, ačt ní leat féin é**, "thou hast plenty of money, but it does not belong to thyself."

36. Wanting a thing.

The idea of wanting a thing, including a wish to get it, is usually expressed by the verb **čá** and the preposition **ó** from: **čá leabdar uaim**, I want a book: lit., "a book is from me:" **creud ačá uait?** "What dost thou want?"

37. Genitive plurals of Personal Pronouns.

Each of the three prepositional pronouns, **asainn**, **asuib**, **aca**, has two different meanings, which are always easily distinguished by the context.

1. Possession, as in Idiom 34: **Do bí leabair aca**, they had books.

2. The sense of a genitive plural when following words denoting a part: **čac fear asuinn**, "each man of us;" **ro eirig an dara fear acosan do déanam an cleasa**, "the

second man of them (ACOSAN, "of themselves") arose to perform the feat:" CIA AGUMNE AG A B-FUIL AN FÍRINNE, AR FIONN, " 'which of us has the truth,' says Finn" (AG A B-FUIL, "with whom is" = "has:" see Idiom 34).

38. To give a name.

To give a name to a thing is often expressed in Irish by *to put a name on it*; MAR ZO TUGTAR DÁ BANTUAČAC AIR BHECOILL AGUS AIR DHANANN, "as (the name) 'two ladies' was put on Bechoill and Danann: i.e. as they "were called 'two ladies.' " MAR ZO D-TUG cleas AIR AN S-cleas sin, "as he called that feat 'a feat' " (lit. "as that he put [the name] 'feat' on that feat").

Sometimes, also, to give such and such a name to a thing is expressed by "to say such and such a name with a thing:" ROS-DÁ-SÁILEAC RIS A RÁIÖTEAR LUMNEAC ANU, "Ros-da-shaileach which is called Limerick now" (lit. "R. with which is said 'Limerick' now").

39. De after comparatives.

The prepositional pronoun *de* "of it," is often postfixed to comparatives, giving rise to some idiomatic phrases. AGUS ZION ZO B-FUIL CUIÖ AGUINN DO MARBÖÖ DIARMAÖA, NÍ MÖÖE DO ZEUBÖÖ (AONGUS) AN FÍRINNE UAIM, "and although we have no part in killing Diarmaid, Aongus would not the more receive the truth from us" (here *möÖe* is *de* added to *mó*, the comparative of *mór*, great: for *zion zo* = "although not:" see Idiom 11). IS FUSÖE D'FHIONN ÁR LORZNA LEANAMAIN, AN EACRA BEIČ AGAINN, "it is the easier for Finn to follow our track that we have the horses" (*fu-söe* = *de* after *fusa*, comparative of *furus*, easy): i.e. "our having the horses makes it easier for Finn," &c.

40. "A man of great strength."

"A man of great strength," is expressed by the Irish *FEAR IS MÖR NEART*, which translated word for word is "a man (who) is great strength:" the words *mör neart* being in the nominative, and not in the genitive, as might be expected from the English "of great strength." This idiom is extremely common in Irish, the verb *is* in some of its forms being always used; and when translating it, remember that the Irish words, though in the nominative case, convey the exact sense of the genitive with "of" in English, and must be

rendered accordingly. *NÍ RAIÖ A 5-CÓMAIMSIR RIS FEAR BA MÓ ÓR A5US AIRGEAD MÁ DIARMAID*, "there was not at the same time with him a man who had more gold and silver than Diarmaid" (lit. "a man [who] was greater gold and silver," i.e. "a man who was of greater gold and silver.") *DÖ ðEARCAS AN ðEIT BA NIAMÖA CRUÖ*, "I saw a lady (of) bright shape:" *TALAM BA FEÁRR BIAÖ A5US DEOC*, "a land (of) the best food and drink:" *OISÍN BA ÖREUN NEART A'S LUÖ*, "Oisín of mighty strength and vigour."

Sometimes the preposition *5o* (with) is used instead of the verb: as *FEAR 5O MÓR NEART*, a man with great strength, i.e. a man of great strength.

41. A wish.

"I wish I had such and such a thing," is often expressed in Irish by some such form of phrase as "Alas that I have not got it!" the word *5an* being generally used as the negative particle. *AS TRUAIS 5AN PEATA 'N MAOIR A5UM!* "I wish I had the shepherd's pet!" (Here *AS TRUAIS*, "it is pity" = "alas:" *A5UM* is used to denote possession, with its verb understood—Idiom 34: and the word-for-word translation is "it is pity not the pet of the shepherd with me." *A DHIA 5AN MÉ AM' ABAILLÍN*, "I wish I were an apple" ("O God, I not an apple"—or "in my apple.")

42. One noun asserted of another by *τá*.

When one noun is asserted of another (or of a pronoun) by the verb *τá*, in any of its forms, it requires the aid of the preposition *Δ* or *Δnn*, "in," and of one of the possessive pronouns, giving rise to a unique and extremely curious idiom. Thus "I am a man," if expressed in Irish by *τá*, will be (not *τá mé fear*, but) *τá mé Δm' fear*, which is word for word, "I am in my man." *BÍ TUSA ΔO' S5IAN A5US MISE Δm' FEOL*, "be thou the knife and I the flesh." (lit. "be thou in thy knife and I in my flesh"). *BECHOILL A5US DANANN DÖ BÍ I N-Δ M-BAINCÍ5EARNAIÖ*, "Bechoill and Danann who were princesses" ("who were in their princesses"): *IS FEÁRR ÉIREAN MÍLE UAIR NÁ TUSA, CUIR Δ 5-CÁS 5O B-FUIL TÚ ΔO' RÍ NO ΔO' PRIONNSA*. "he is better a thousand times than thou, even supposing that thou art a king or a prince" (*CUIR Δ 5-CÁS*, "put in case" = "suppose" or "although"): *FA5AID NA DAOINE BÁR, CUIÖ ACA 'N-Δ*

n-óḡánaiḃ, agus cuir aca 'n-a seanóiríḃ, "men die ('receive death: ' " Idiom 3), "some of them (cur aca: Idiom 37) as youths, and some as old men" ("some of them in their youths and some of them in their old men.") Δ Ὀηια, ḡan mé am aḃailín! "would God that I were an apple !" ("O God without me in my apple!").

Even when one thing is not directly asserted of another, this use of the preposition and the possessive is extremely common in Irish. τάimse am' cōḡla, "I am asleep" ("I am in my sleep"): ὀ'érig ina seasam, "he stood up" ("he arose in his standing"): mise am' aonar, "myself alone" ("myself in my one person"): clanna lir ina ḡ-ceatrar, (the four children of Lir) ("the children of Lir in their four-persons").

The preposition ann is used with τά without any governed noun, to denote existence in general; as ατά αon Ὀια amáin ann, there is only one God; here the ann in the end, which has no representative in the translation, means "in it," i. e. in existence. Sometimes this ann answers very nearly to the English "here," or "there;" as is tú ατά ann "it is thou who art in it—who art in existence—who art there."

43. Differences between is and τά.

There are several differences, as to the manner of application, between is and τά.

1. is is a simple copula, and is used to predicate one thing of another, or to connect an attribute with its subject; as is mé an t-slíge, an fírinne, agus an beaḡa, "I am the way, the truth, and the life."

But if existence in connection with place is to be predicated of the subject, τά is used; as τά mé a m-baile aḡa cliaḡ, I am in Dublin: an raiḃ tú ann sin? wert thou there?

If an adjective is to be predicated of a noun, either is or τά may be used:—is breaḡ an lá é, or τά an lá breaḡ, "it is a fine day," or "the day is fine."

2. is connects one noun or pronoun with another, as predicate and subject directly, and without the aid of any other word; as is fear mé, I am a man. But τά cannot do this without the aid of the preposition i or inn and the possessive pronoun, as already explained in last Idiom; as τά mé am' fear, I am a man ("I am in my man.")

3. **Is** expresses simply that a person or thing is so, and implies nothing more. But when the assertion is made by **τᾶ**, there is often something more implied than is contained in the direct assertion—the idea that the person or thing has not always been so—has come to be so, &c. Thus, if you say to me **Is fear é**, your assertion means nothing more than that “he is a man”—not a woman or a coward, &c. If we see a figure approach in the dark, and that after looking close you find it is a man, your correct phraseology is, **Is fear é**, by which I understand you to mean “it is a man”—not a woman, or a beast, or a ghost.

But if you say to me **τᾶ sé 'n-a fear** (“he is in his man”), here I take you to mean a very different thing—that he is now a man, no longer a boy, grown up to be a man. If I were speaking of a person as if he were a mere boy, and that you wished to correct this false impression, the proper phraseology would be, **τᾶ sé 'n-a fear**.

But though this idea of an implied change is often contained in an assertion made by **τᾶ**, it is not always so; as **ní b-fuil áct aon Dia amáin ann, atá 'n-a fíor-spioraio**, there is only one God alone, who is a pure spirit: here the last assertion is made by **τᾶ** though there can be no change.

4. **τᾶ** is used with **as** to denote possession (Idiom 43); **is** is used with **le** to denote ownership (Idiom 44); in these two applications the two verbs cannot change places.

τᾶ may indeed be used with **le**, but the idea conveyed is not “belonging to,” but “being favourable to:” **Do bí Eolus leo** “(Eolus was with them)”, does not mean that they were the owners of Eolus (which would be the meaning if **is** had been used), but that “Eolus was favourable to them”—“was on their side.”

5. **τᾶ** is used with the Irish words for cold, heat, hunger, &c, as in Idiom 36; as **τᾶ ocras orm**, hunger is in me, I am hungry: here **is** cannot be used.

6. When the comparative of an adjective is used as in the following sentences, either verb will answer:—**is saibhre é ná mise** or **τᾶ sé nior saibhre ná mise**, he is richer than I.

But when the superlative is employed, **is**, not **τᾶ**, must be used:—**is é is fear is saibhre san dúicé é**, he is the richest man in the country.

APPENDIX.

Additional Examples of Declensions.

FIRST DECLENSION.

breac, *a trout.*

Singular.	Plural.
N. breac.	bric.
G. bric.	breac.
D. breac.	breacaið.
V. a bric.	a breaca.

SECOND DECLENSION.

cos, *a foot.*

N. cos.	cosa.
G. coise	cos.
D. cois.	cosaið.

THIRD DECLENSION.

fígeadóir, *a weaver; masc.*

N. fígeadóir.	fígeadóiríge.
G. fígeadóira.	fígeadóir.
D. fígeadóir.	fígeadóirib.

ačair, *a father; masc.*

N. ačair.	ačre, ačre- ača.
G. ačar.	ačreac.
D. ačair.	ačreacaið.

(**máčair**, *a mother*, and **bráčair** or **dearbáčair**, *a brother*, are declined in the same way.)

bliaðain, *a year; fem.*

N. bliaðain.	bliaðanta.
G. bliaðna.	bliaðan.
D. bliaðain.	bliaðantaið.

ainm, *a name.*

N. ainm.	anmanna.
G. ainme, anma.	amnann.
D. ainm.	anmannaið

FOURTH DECLENSION.

teine, *a fire.*

Singular.	Plural.
N. tine.	teinte.
G. tine.	teineað.
D. tine.	teintib.

éinín, *a little bird.*

N. éinín.	éinínre.
G. éinín.	éinín.
D. éinín.	éinínib.

FIFTH DECLENSION.

lánama, *a married couple.*

N. lánama.	lánamna.
G. lánaman.	lánaman.
D. lánamain.	lánamnaið.

IRREGULAR NOUNS.

śa, *a spear.*

N. śa, śač.	śaoi, śaeč, śaoiče.
G. śai, śaoi.	śač, śaečað, śaoičeað.
D. śa, śai.	śaoib, śeáčai, śaoičib.

cró, *a hut, a sheepfold.*

N. cró.	craoiche, cróiche.
G. cró.	cró.
D. cró.	craoicib, cró- čib.
V. a cío.	a craoiche, a cróiche.

sliað, *a mountain.*

N. sliað.	sléibte.
G. sléibe.	sléibteað.
D. sliað.	sléibtib.

